The Nation.

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The Week.

THERE is a vast deal of satisfaction that Congress has at last adjourned, albeit tempered by the reflection that the meeting of the next one cannot be postponed beyond the first Monday in December. This satisfaction is expressed in some of the State Legislatures by resolutions condemnatory of Congress and congratulating the country on its final adjournment and extinction. This method of parading our likes and dislikes before the world is unmannerly and unbecoming, because it is an official condemnation of republican government. This Congress, whatever it may have done or left undone, was elected by the people. It could not possibly rest under severer censure than that which was visited upon the Reed-McKinley Congress in the elections of 1890. There is no assurance that the next Congress may not go out of office under as black a cloud as this one. If that should prove to be the case, it would be but following a fresh precedent if all the Democratic Legislatures in the country and all the Populist ones, if any, should pass resolutions congratulating themselves on the deliverance of the country from the torment of such a Congress. And so in course of time the "effete monarchies of the Old World" would expect to see our federal Government put in the pillory, figuratively speaking, rotten-egged, or tarred and feathered by the State governments every two years. This would not be a pleasing spectacle for George Washington if he could be a witness of it one hundred years after the delivery of his Farewell Address.

The action of Congress on the proposed silver conference is embraced in a clause of the sundry civil appropriation bill which provides that "whenever the President of the United States shall determine that the United States should be represented at any international conference called with a view to secure, internationally, a fixity of relative value between gold and silver, as money, by means of a common ratio between those metals, with free mintage at such ratio, the United States shall be represented at such conference by nine delegates." Three of the delegates are to be appointed by the President, three by the Senate, and three by the Speaker of the House, the last to be chosen from members of the Fifty-third Congress who have been reëlected to the Fifty-fourth. The question of sending or not sending delegates is to be determined by the President. Under the terms of the clause he would not be at liberty to send delegates to a conference called, like that of Brussels, merely for the purpose of "considering what measures, if any, could be taken to increase the use of silver in the currency systems of nations." Such a conference would not come within the terms of the law, which contemplates nothing short of free coinage under an international agreement. Nothing less than this would justify the payment of the $100,000 appropriated for the expenses. The terms of the law thus put upon the Government calling the conference the onus of calling it for that specific purpose. Since such a call is a virtual pledge that the country making it will agree to bimetallism at some ratio, the chances of any call whatever being issued are lessened rather than increased, for not even Germany is prepared to make the announcement beforehand that she will change her monetary system in any event. As regards England, it is plain that she is not ready to join in such a call, even if she should respond to one sent out by Germany. The chance of any conference being held is, therefore, only middling. It is a noticeable fact that the extreme silverites, of whom Senator Stewart is the type, are opposed to a new conference altogether. What they want is not bimetallism, but the single silver standard.

Senator Stewart's protest against going into another international conference to do something for silver is wholly justifiable. He knows from long and sad experience that, as he says, such conferences never result in anything but a "fresh blow to silver." How, as he pathetically inquires, can you hope to get anything by conferring with shameless gold-bug powers like Great Britain and Germany, who begin by saying that they will not change their monetary systems, no matter what other nations do? He sees clearly that nothing will come of it all but long and dreary disquisitions on silver, which his soul loathes, platonic resolves that something ought to be done, but that it is beyond the wit of mortal man to say what, and at the end a lot of disgusted delegates returning home to take up the burden of life again. In fact, the Populists are the only ones who think straight and see with an open vision on this subject. Stewart and Allen and Peffer and Martin and Kyle are really the only consistent friends of silver left. It cuts them to the heart to see the innocent Wolcott fooled, or pretending that he is fooled, by this international humbug. But they at least will maintain the true faith. And who can doubt that they will win in the end? It used to be said, Athanasius *contra mundum*, and we all know who won in that contest. In the great modern struggle, Pefferus *contra aurum*, the chances are all in favor of the party of the first part, and Wolcott and the other compromisers and international conference men will take the contemptible place of the Arians in history.

The supporters of McKinley, Reed, and Harrison in the next Republican national convention will probably succeed so far as to neutralize and efface each other, while some candidate who has not excited so much bad feeling will carry off the prize. Reed has lost ground in the East since he played fast and loose with the bond sale and the gold standard, but it would be a mistake if this should prove a gain to McKinley, whose record on the silver question is much worse. In a speech in Toledo, April 12, 1891, McKinley attacked President Cleveland (he was ex-President at that time) in the following words:

> "During all of his [Cleveland's] years at the head of the Government, he was dishonoring one of our precious metals, one of our own great products; discrediting silver and enhancing the price of gold. He endeavored, even before his inauguration to office, to stop the coinage of silver dollars, and afterwards, and to the end of his Administration, persistently used his power to that end. He was determined to contract the circulating medium and demonetize one of the coins of commerce, limit the volume of money among the people, make money scarce, and therefore dear. He would have increased the value of money and diminished the value of everything else—money the master, everything else its servant."

The Scholar in Politics did a great deal of "the work of the world," with much "dust and sweat," on the naval appropriation bill in the Senate. He gave a rapid survey of foreign politics, showing how Russia is gaining strength in the Orient and is sure to come into collision with England sooner or later, and how France will join Russia in that conflict on account of her jealousy of English influence in Egypt. There is another impelling force pushing France into war. Socialism is growing so rapidly that the conservative element can find protection only by throwing itself again into the arms of the man on horseback. "When that is done," says the Scholar, "war is inevitable and instant." How does that affect us? The Scholar has an answer ready: "We are a part of the European balance of power. As in 1778 and 1812, we shall find ourselves in practical alliance with Russia and France, and in practical hostility to England and the Dreibund." Some people may remember, although the Scholar has forgotten, that in 1812 Russia and France were in deadly conflict, and that Russia was so friendly to us that she offered herself as a mediator between us and England, and actually took the first steps that led to the treaty of Ghent. No trifle of that sort stops the Scholar. Having got us into alliance with Russia and France and into hostilities with England, Germany, Austria, and Italy, he goes on to explain why

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we are in a position so far removed from the tenets of Washington's Farewell Address. "It is because, so long as Great Britain remains a power on this continent, in Canada, we can be nowhere else." There is some mystery about this which the Scholar ought to explain. In 1854-'55, England was actually engaged in war with Russia, and she was "a power on this continent in Canada," yet we did not find any inconvenience in that fact. "Her fortifications threaten us," says Mr. Lodge; "Halifax is a menace to us, Bermuda is a menace to us, and so is Kingston, so is the one opposite the isthmus." Which one, Fiji or St. Lucia? "So is Esquimault on the other side; and the Canadian Pacific Road, built by the Government, cannot be justified by any commercial principle."

We think that the Scholar has made one mistake in this array of reasons why we should have a navy large enough to fight somebody. When he puts us in the attitude of siding with France against Germany in the next great European conflict, he does not reflect sufficiently on the fact that the German vote is much larger than the French vote. Indeed, there is practically no French vote in this country worth catering to. Even the English vote is larger than the French vote. So, too, it seems to us that the Scholar has overestimated the menace of Halifax and the other places he speaks of, and has misconceived the principles upon which the Canadian Pacific Railroad exists. If Halifax is a menace to us, we are a menace to Halifax. So we are even as to that. That the Canadian Pacific Railroad was not built on commercial principles seems to be acknowledged in London since the passing of its March dividend, but on the other hand we have at least four Pacific railroads in the same category. So we are more than even with Great Britain in that particular. Perhaps that is a good reason in itself for enlarging our navy. However that may be, we feel assured that when Mr. Lodge's speech is read in the cabinets of the Old World, they will be aware of the existence of a new European power with which they must reckon, and will no longer consider themselves sheltered on the West by George Washington's Farewell Address.

Some of the leading Republican Senators (Sherman, Platt, and Hoar) expressed regret on Saturday that the appropriation of $425,000 for the Bering Sea claims had been rejected by the House. Mr. Sherman feared that the effect would be to bring the principle of international arbitration into disrepute. Mr. Hoar apprehended that it would have this effect, and also that the settlement of the claims under a foreign umpire would cost more than $425,000. Senator Morgan, the man who is always wrong, brought forward the odd proposal that Congress should now investigate the separate claims, although the Paris tribunal of which he was a member provided an entirely different method of procedure. Mr. Morgan also said (as did Mr. Hitt in the House) that most of the claims were those of "rascally Americans who were violating the laws of their own country." The truth is, that seal-fishing in Bering Sea beyond the three-mile limit was not forbidden by law to either Americans or foreigners, and that when an attempt was made in 1891 to pass such a law, Senator Morgan himself opposed it and caused it to be rejected. The defeat of this appropriation is, we think, the most humiliating act of the present Congress, surpassing the vote on the gold-bond bill, because the latter concerns only ourselves, while the former affects our standing among nations. It is true that we had our election either to pay without any fuss or to make as much fuss as possible. We chose the second method, and from this time forward our single aim will be to prove that the "poachers" in Bering Sea were our own citizens, and that they are not entitled to any of the pay, although they were engaged in a lawful occupation.

Against the bill for the more effectual suppression of the lottery traffic, the lottery men had secured as their champions those two wily Senators, so confidently counted on by corporate influences, Gorman and Brice. Gorman, who so delights to play the conscientious rôle, opposed devoting to the House amendments the few minutes which a vote on them would require, on the plea that this would interfere with the appropriation bills. Senator Hoar's absence from the chamber during the night would have proved fatal to the measure; but his persistence had its reward, and in the small hours of Monday morning the bill was finally sent on its way to the President. It will seem strange to many people that express companies should oppose a measure of this kind at all, or that the business which the lottery companies give the express offices should be important enough to fight for. This business, however, is much larger than is generally understood. Indeed, if a canvass could be made of the persons at the thousands of smaller railroad stations throughout the country who combine the duties of railroad and express agents, it would be found that very few of them have not been approached by the lottery men with the offer of an agency, and that large numbers of them have consented so to act. If the new law puts a stop to this branch of the business, the lottery people will have to be very cunning to devise some substitute for it.

The accession of Mr. W. L. Wilson to President Cleveland's cabinet is a cause for genuine public congratulation. He deserves in a preëminent degree the title of "the scholar in politics," for his career in the House has shown him to be the possessor of a trained and philosophic mind, which he has applied to the problems of government with absolute devotion and with unswerving allegiance to high ideals. No member of the House serving with him has been his equal in this respect. His speeches have been the production of a scholar and a thinker, far removed from the low plane of partisan politics, appealing directly to human reason, and based upon prolonged and intelligent study of the fruits of human experience. His absence from the House will be a distinct loss to that body, and an irreparable loss to his party's representation there, for among the old members who will remain, and among the new ones who will come in when the new Congress assembles, there is not one who gives any sign of possessing the high qualities which distinguish him. In putting him into his cabinet President Cleveland has not only spared the country the loss of his services, but has strengthened his Administration with an adviser whose counsel is certain to be of great value.

A fortnight ago the Michigan Republicans met in State convention and heartily commended the course of the Republican Congressmen from Michigan who had refused to substitute the word "gold" for "coin" in United States bonds. Upon this the few forlorn Democrats left in the State pricked up their ears and determined, if the race was to be for cheap money, to make sure of coming in first. So their convention on Thursday resolved boldly "in favor of the free and unlimited coinage of silver and gold at a ratio of 16 to 1, . . . regardless of the position of any other nation with respect thereto." It would be hard to beat that platform, but as to beating the candidates that stand upon it, that is another affair. Last year's platform of the Michigan Democrats declared "in favor of the free, unlimited coinage of silver," and the result was that they were able to elect a grand total of exactly one member of the lower house of the State Legislature. What have they against that lonely man that they want to drive even him out of public life?

There never was a party which had so much trouble with its own members as the Populists. They have never come into power in any State without speedily accusing the officials whom they had elected of "selling them out." They cannot even devise any way of getting the news straight in Populist newspapers. The "National Reform Press Association" held a convention at Kansas City the other day, and grappled with the question, "How can we get reliable telegraph news independent of the monopoly plutocratic press associations?" Several speakers ad-

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vised the establishment of a news bureau with "a faithful Populist" in charge who should take the leading newspapers of the country, clip "reliable news" from their columns, and send it to the Populist papers. This was an extraordinarily sensible proposition for such an assembly, but it proved to be utterly impracticable, for nobody could meet the objection that it would be impossible to find a man who would remain "faithful to the party." A suggestion that the chairman of the national committee would be a good man to take charge of such a bureau was greeted with derision, as a number of the leaders accused him of designs to betray the Populists into the hands of a new third party. The matter was finally turned over to a committee of five, but nobody seemed to expect that they could solve the problem how to keep a Populist honest more than a few weeks.

South Carolina is to have a constitutional convention. The proposition has been mooted for years, but it remained for ex-Gov. Tillman to push the scheme through. It was at first expected that he would try to run the convention in the same high-handed way that has characterized his conduct towards all branches of the Government, but he has given the State a surprise by proposing a compromise under which the old conservative element is to be given half of the delegates. The offer seems to be made in good faith, and is accepted in the same spirit. The greatest question before the convention will be the proposed elimination of the negro vote. An effort will probably be made to follow the example of Mississippi by adopting a provision imposing what may be called a flexible educational qualification. In Mississippi a man, in order to exercise the franchise, must be either able to read the Constitution "or to understand the same when read to him, or give a reasonable interpretation thereof." This was intended to catch the black illiterate while letting the equally ignorant white slip through, and of course such a provision opens the way for fraud. Other propositions urged by the Bourbons in South Carolina for the same purpose are the imposition of a heavy poll-tax and the apportionment of school money between the two races according to the amounts of their taxes respectively, which would discriminate terribly against the blacks. Vigorous opposition, however, is made to this policy by some prominent and representative white men, an eloquent protest having recently been made by Col. John J. Dargan of Sumter, who pronounces such schemes "outrageous, disgraceful, abhorrent to every idea of liberty."

A very excellent point was made by Gov. Morton in his memorandum on the West Troy police bill, and emphasized later in his informal explanation of that memorandum. He says that the "condition of parties in November should not be taken as a criterion for the selection of officers of a merely local character several months afterwards; and candidates representing local issues should not be deprived of office while receiving more votes than any other candidates simply because they do not belong to one of the two great political parties into which the State or nation may have been divided months before." That shows up very clearly the absurdity of all bi-partisan boards which have general administrative duties. A police board equally divided between the two political parties which cast the largest vote in a national election, shuts out entirely the great body of voters who disregarded party lines in order to secure a reform municipal administration. Under a bi-partisan control of that kind, the majority of citizens who elected Mayor Strong would have no representation whatever in the Police Department, for the minute a man ceased to be a regular party man he would be ineligible to a position on the board. The Platt-Lexow plan of electing members of the board is the most extreme form of the evil which the Governor condemns, and he cannot, after this utterance, approve that plan if it shall ever reach him.

The most important bibliological event that has ever occurred in this city is the consolidation of the Astor, Tilden, and Lenox libraries, which has at length been agreed upon. The plan converts the three libraries into a great public library for the city of New York, managed by a committee of twenty-one, to which each library contributes seven members. This is the happiest possible solution of various problems. The late Mr. Astor was so convinced of the injury to the Astor Library of its association with his name and family, that he directed his son to sever all connection with it, which the son has done. The Lenox Library, valuable as its contents are, has, for some reason or other, whether distance from the centre of population, or tradition of earlier seclusion, failed to attract readers to any great extent. The history of Mr. Tilden's trust we all know. Two millions of money belonging to it await expenditure in accordance with his wishes, but no plan for turning the sum to the best account has, in spite of much deliberation on the part of the trustees, ever been agreed upon. The present scheme offers a happy deliverance from the main difficulties.

On February 3 the Swiss voters were called on by a referendum to pass upon a new law relating to the diplomatic representation of the country. Owing to the increase of emigration and the growing importance of Swiss interests abroad, it was thought desirable to appoint full consuls in place of the consular agents who alone have been employed heretofore. There was no particular opposition to this proposition, but coupled with it was another to empower the central Government to appoint ambassadors and fix their salaries without the necessity of taking a popular vote. This was repugnant to the sturdy Swiss democrats for two reasons. In the first place, they share the general feeling of a democracy about foreign ministers, who are thought of as a lazy and useless set, paid high salaries to do nothing but practise the social graces in the great capitals of the world. In addition was the danger into which the principle of the referendum itself would be brought if so important a matter as this could be withdrawn permanently from its scope. Whatever the motives or the arguments, the opposition proved effective, and the whole measure was defeated by a vote of 222,396 to 171,732.

The ministerial crisis in Norway has, within a fortnight, entered upon a new and significant stage. The King, being in Christiania, summoned Mr. S. Nielsen, the president of the Storthing, and asked for a plain statement of the programme which the party of the Left proposed to present to the Storthing. King Oscar is said to have shown a somewhat conciliatory disposition, and the Radical leaders have met him half-way, and retreated from the position they assumed in the last Storthing in regard to the burning question of a separate consular service for Norway. They are now willing to concede the right of Sweden to discuss the question and to offer suggestions, provided the negotiations are conducted through a Norwegian ministry, chosen from the leaders of the Left. A year ago the claim was stubbornly maintained that the consular question was a distinctly Norwegian one, and must be decided by the Norwegian Government, without any interference on the part of Sweden. A mutual *rapprochement* seems thus to have taken place, and a peaceful and rational solution of the difficulty is within the pale of probability. The Government organs are beginning to reflect this changed attitude, and all talk of war is, on both sides, discountenanced. The King has during the last few days issued a manifesto, in the shape of an open letter to President Nielsen, in which he tacitly abandons his former position that Sweden can never permit the establishment of a Norwegian consular service. He emphasizes the necessity of mutual concessions, and declares that the consular programme can be carried out only if Norway will give assurance of a disposition to treat this and all other questions relating to the union in a peaceful and conciliatory spirit, which will conduce to their final settlement. The answer of the Left to this letter is also couched in cautious and temperate terms, and there is every reason for believing that the end of the long and bitter constitutional struggle is not far distant.

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CONGRESSIONAL STATESMANSHIP.

THE Congress which died on Monday represents the wisdom of the Democratic party applied to the governmental problems which confront the American people. It has suffered no let or hindrance in administration. The Congress which expired four years ago to-day represented Republican wisdom applied to the same problems. In that Congress Republican policy was in control of all departments of the Government. The intervening Congress, the Fifty-second, had a divided responsibility. The questions pressing for solution upon the Fifty-first Congress were almost identical with those which the Fifty-third Congress has had to face. They were questions of revenue and finance. A dispassionate statement of the solutions adopted by the unfettered Republican Congress of 1889–'91, in comparison with those chosen by the untrammelled Democratic Congress of 1893–'95, is the only way to make a just apportionment of praise or blame, and to show the present level of congressional statesmanship irrespective of partisan considerations.

The main difficulty which met Reed's Congress on the threshold was that of the swollen revenues and the huge balance in the Treasury. Let this be stated in the words, not of a partisan opponent, but of the party's own finance minister. Secretary Windom's first annual report showed that the Treasury surplus, applicable to the purchase of bonds, would be by June 30, 1890, $163,484,042. In regard to this he said:

> "It is manifestly wrong to take money from the people for the cancellation of bonds, to the saving of only about 2 per cent. of interest, when it is worth to them perhaps three times as much in their business. It is rather through a reduction of customs receipts and internal taxes that an unnecessary accumulation of money in the Treasury should be avoided."

How this business proposition and good advice was received by the Fifty-first Congress can be stated in a word. Deliberate means to squander the surplus were chosen. The annual bill for pensions was marked up $75,000,000. In an unprecedented bounty law $10,000,000 more was disposed of. Customs duties, instead of being reduced, were increased, confessedly at the behest of their beneficiaries, and, to make sure that nothing should be left in the Treasury after Tanner and the bounty-men took their hands out of it, a tax which had existed since the foundation of the Government, and which was bringing in a revenue of $40,000,000 a year, was repealed. The net result of these dealings with the Government revenue was to bring the Treasury into great straits in the closing months of the Republican Administration. The gold reserve fell to the danger point. The available cash balance was reduced to $11,000,000, in place of $163,000,000. The secretary of the treasury said a Government loan would have to be made, and had bonds prepared for issue.

Republican wisdom, taking a turn at the currency, wrought in a sad sincerity as follows: The Fifty-first Congress inherited a vicious and onerous silver-coinage law, requiring the purchase of $2,000,000 a month of silver, and giving the option of buying $4,000,000. It was not unaware of the dangers of this law. The secretary of the treasury frankly told it that the law was a standing peril to the national finance, and that the arguments against it were "justified by the laws of trade and finance, and by the universal experience of mankind." It might have been expected that the Congress would take steps at least to diminish the evil. On the contrary, it deliberately doubled it. The secretary of the treasury was ordered to purchase 4,500,000 ounces of silver a month. This action was not excused as a necessary concession to highwaymen, but was extolled by all the accredited Republican organs as a great stroke of conservative and constructive legislation.

The Fifty-second Congress was in a state of chronic deadlock, and no assignment of responsibility can fairly be made in its case. But the Fifty-third had a free hand, and how has it dealt with the same questions of revenue and currency? As far as undoing the awful blunder of the Fifty-first Congress on the silver business is concerned, its success has been great. It has stopped the silver purchases outright and, we believe, for ever. The thing was doubtless done *malgré lui*. It was done with a fearful straining of the whole machine, but it was done. That claim on the gratitude of the American people they are not now disposed to disown, and they will be less and less disposed to disown it as time rolls by and makes more clear to them the great salvation it brought them, or made possible for them, in matters financial. But here praise must end. Congress could repeal bad legislation; it could not enact good legislation. Its action on the urgent question of the greenbacks, of banking, of Treasury certificates, of gold bonds, has been imbecility heaped on imbecility—the helpless floundering of irreconcilable factions in a quagmire.

Touching the problem of the Government's revenue, the record is a checkered one. The business panic complicated everything, so that it is as yet impossible to say how the Treasury balance between income and expenditure will stand after normal conditions have returned. But grievous sins of omission and equally grievous sins of commission must in any case be charged. A revenue of $30,000,000 from a slight increase in the tax on beer was to be had for picking it up, but was passed by. The tariff as a revenue-producing measure was lost sight of. To crown all, the income tax was snapped like a concealed trap.

We leave our readers who look on this picture and on that to say for themselves in which the shadow predominates. For ourselves we will only say that four years are too short a time for a myth to grow up, and that those who are pointing back to Reed's Congress as the golden age of congressional statesmanship would do well to wait until the memory of its doings grows less vivid. To those who object that the comparison arouses little hope for miracles of statesmanship from the next Congress, we have no comfort to offer except that it is always well to know the worst. The chief moral of all is the one forced home upon us from so many other sources, namely, that American public finance is a national disgrace, from its lack of rational system, and above all from the lack of knowledge, convictions, and courage on the part of those set to administer it.

REPRESENTATIVE GOVERNMENT IN OPERATION.

THE almost universal commendation of President Cleveland for his action in the late financial crisis has one bearing little noticed. If he was right, Congress was wrong. If he represented a sweeping popular sentiment, as multiplied evidence shows that he did, then House and Senate were in defiance of that sentiment. But those bodies, particularly the House, are the chosen representatives of public sentiment. How came it about that instead of obeying they flouted it? This is a mystery which many people have been puzzling their heads over the past month. The mystery will not appear so dense, however, if we attend (1) to the manner in which these so-called representatives are chosen, and (2) to the kind of men they are when chosen.

The theory of representative government, as laid down by Mill and other writers, is simple and beautiful. The voters in a given congressional district put their heads together, look over the field, choose out the man whom they think fittest to represent them at Washington, and send him there. He is to be no automaton, he is to be left at liberty to express his opinions if he has any, but in the great matters in issue, politically, he is to vote as the men would have him who elected him to office. If this theory were carried out in practice, it is obvious that a House of Representatives running counter to the general convictions and wishes of the people on so important a question as the national credit and currency could not be conceived of as possible.

But a little attention to the way representatives are actually chosen will help one to understand why they act as oligarchs, not representatives. They are elected by oligarchical methods. Far from the electors having free selection of their representatives, they are shut up to the narrowest possible choice—usually to a choice of evils. Their candidates are selected for them by a party which is itself an oligarchy, and are further determined by a boss or a petty committee

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of that party. Take the last election in the Fourteenth District in this city. The voters were shut up to a choice between Quigg and Connelly. One boss determined one nomination and another the other. Yet, on the theory of representative government, Quigg is the spontaneous choice of the 43,000 voters—or at least of the 24,000 who voted for him; and when he runs Platt's errands, writes Platt's edicts, and votes Platt's votes, he has the might and majesty of a great electorate behind him. This is a good illustration of Representation as she represents, and helps us to understand how representatives of public opinion can oppose it. They are not real representatives, but a lot of oligarchs, chosen by oligarchs, and running the Government to suit themselves.

Especial and sufficient reason why the House of Representatives should so lamentably misrepresent the country on financial questions is to be found in the class of men who compose it. But the smallest fraction of them have any practical acquaintance with banking or trade or manufacturing. The great, the overwhelming, majority of them are lawyers. In the Fiftieth Congress, 203 members of the House were lawyers; in the Fifty-second, 200; in the last Congress there was the appalling number of 243. We say appalling, not that we have any objection to lawyers; but we have decided objections to the kind that, for the most part, get into Congress. They are the third or fifth-rate members of the profession—of the narrow-minded, cross-roads order. A "composite" biography, true in general for the great mass of them, would read about as follows, in phrases taken literally from sketches of their lives furnished by themselves to the Congressional Directory:

"Was born in 1838; worked on a farm until he was sixteen; took up the trade of blacksmithing; taught school for two years; read law with the Hon. Gabe Bouck of Minturn's Corners; was admitted to the bar in 1866; nominated for Prosecuting Attorney against the most popular man in the Republican party and triumphantly elected in 1869; held several other county offices; was never defeated; member of Forty-eighth, Fifty-first, and Fifty-third Congresses; said of him by his home paper: 'In all relations of life, as a neighbor, friend, and public official, he has been faithful to every trust, zealous as a church member, Sunday-school worker, and legislator.'"

Is it any wonder that a House dominated by men of such training and antecedents should display a certain crudity in dealing with nice questions of finance? Add in the twenty-two farmer members, who are at least as crude and hazy in their notions about the currency, and it is not surprising that the thirty-three members of the House who come from active commercial pursuits, from banking or manufacturing, can make so little impression on the great majority. The complaint is an old one. In the Forty-fifth Congress, when the House was madly rushing to repeal the resumption act, Congressman Chittenden said with perfect truth:

"We, the representatives of the people, have discussed this question of currency for more than fifteen years, during which time more than five hundred paper-money devices have been brought here. For more than five years we have devoted our energies to the interests of bankrupt speculators exclusively."

That is precisely what is to be expected from a lot of small-minded country lawyers turned politicians. For a large part of their lives they are thrown into daily contact with men who are anxious to cheat their creditors, and nothing is more natural than that they should endeavor to shape national legislation so as to enable them to do it. They come out of communities where elementary instruction in finance has never penetrated, where everybody is trying to get a little money by hook or by crook, and what more inevitable than that they should want to vote all their old friends a generous *per capita* out of the Treasury?

In the campaign of education on the finances which must come, nothing is more important than to cut down the number of lawyer-politicians in the House, and swell the numbers of true and capable representatives of the business and commerce of the country. Most of the present Congressmen who may be classed as business men come from New York and New England. The cities of the South must see to it that they do not allow themselves to be throttled by cross-roads lawyers. Party names are of little account in this matter. A leading trade journal justly says:

"The nominal politics of a real representative of a commercial and manufacturing section is a secondary consideration; practical business men of diverse political views as regards the hundred non-essentials of a political creed, are invariably in perfect accord upon questions which concern the financial credit and the commercial and industrial prosperity of the country."

It is time we had some currency legislation from Congress designed for the benefit of solvent business men instead of bankrupt speculators.

BIMETALLISM IN ENGLAND.

THE English bimetallists last week brought a resolution before the House of Commons to the effect that, having regard to the recent expressions of Germany and France on the subject of the growing divergence between the values of silver and gold, the Government ought to coöperate with the Powers in the calling of an international conference. Sir William Harcourt promptly accepted the resolution, and said that England had always listened to the suggestions of friendly powers for conferences touching common interests, and would continue to do so; that no communication had been received from any quarter on this subject, but that if any should be received, it would be treated with all due courtesy. He reminded the House that the failure of the Brussels conference could not be charged to England; that Germany had preceded England in declaring that she would not change her monetary system, and that England had voted in favor of the Rothschild plan of taking steps to arrest the decline of silver, while Russia and the countries of the Latin Union had voted against it and defeated it. Thereupon the resolution was adopted without a division.

Meanwhile Germany seems to be rather backward in coming forward. The Reichstag voted, a few weeks ago, in favor of a new conference to promote bimetallism. The united commercial bodies of Germany happened to hold their annual convention shortly after this vote was taken in the Reichstag, and they, by unanimous vote, passed a resolution opposing any such movement. The Government thereupon took a position of masterly inactivity, hoping evidently that the project would "blow over." Then followed the resolution in the House of Commons, which will probably revive the spirits of the German contingent, and may compel the Government to do something. One remark of Sir William Harcourt must, nevertheless, give great uneasiness to the German chancellor, or whoever is charged with the duty of formulating the call for the conference—viz., his expression of a hope that the call would not be for the purposes of academic discussion, but would embrace definite proposals. There is nothing so repulsive to bimetallists as a definite proposal—as, for instance, to consider a coinage ratio between gold and silver. They always sheer away from this.

In the Brussels conference, for example, after the academic discussion had proceeded a certain time, Mr. Forssell of Sweden asked the American delegates what ratio they would consider the most practical and equitable, whether 15½ or 16 to 1, or a ratio nearer the market value of silver. Mr. Allison replied that the delegation had had no conference on the subject. They would, of course, prefer their own ratio of 16 to 1, but they would accept that of 15½ if it were more agreeable to those countries which had the largest amount of silver. He agreed that the question of ratio was a fundamental one, but he thought that a more important one was the question how many countries would join in a bimetallic treaty at any ratio. Mr. Forssell said that the interesting reply of Mr. Allison led him to put to the delegates of the United States a second question, viz.: What number of states would, in their opinion, be necessary to make a bimetallic treaty effective? In the way of rendering the discussion practical a reply to this question would be of great value. The reply to this question was interrupted by a speech from M. Tirard, one of the delegates of France, after which Mr. Allison said that since France was not disposed to join in any scheme which would increase her silver holdings, he thought that a reply to Mr. Forssell's query was unnecessary.

The position of France at the present time is decidedly interesting. She holds the largest stock of gold of all the na-

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tions. The Bank of France alone holds $400,000,000 of this metal, and the quantity in circulation is also larger than that of any other country. Any plan of bimetallism which should expose her gold hoard to depredation by silver-producing countries would cause a chill in all her commercial veins. Upon this point M. Tirard was very emphatic in the Brussels conference. He said that France had no cause to complain of the present monetary situation, and that she did not complain. She had endeavored to come to an agreement with the United States at the conference of 1881, which was a sort of continuation of that of 1878. Later, in 1889, a monetary congress was held in Paris during the Exposition, but nothing came of it. France was the country of all others which had the largest quantity of metallic money, both gold and silver. This was due to the minute subdivision of properties and employments, which, being very small, were not adapted to the use of bank checks to the same extent as in countries where industry is more consolidated and centralized. She ceased to coin silver because she was confronted with an ever-increasing volume of that metal. Why should France permit the free coinage of silver when she was already amply provided with it? She alone possessed as much as all the other states of Europe put together. The Bank of France, he said, holds as much as all the other banks together; "consequently I have the right to say that she has quite enough."

While this is as true to-day as it was when M. Tirard uttered it, the Government is confronted by the same pressure from the agricultural class which that of Germany has to meet and to which Sir William Harcourt yielded when he accepted Mr. Everett's resolution on Tuesday week. The land-owners of all these countries are in distress by reason of the low price of wheat, and they think that the low price is due to something else than an over-supply of the article itself. A change in the money standard, they think, could not make matters worse, but might make them better. So they are pushing with all their might in all three of these countries for bimetallism. It is a very interesting situation for us. If the bimetallists should by any means carry the day, Uncle Sam is ready to supply them with silver at any ratio they may choose to adopt, and will take gold in payment if they force it upon him.

A PESSIMISTIC OUTLOOK.

The *Journal des Économistes*, in its last issue, makes a review of the situation of the world at the close of 1894 which is terrible reading for an optimist. In the first place, it says, the expenses of government in Europe have in ten years increased 22 per cent., while the population has increased only 10 per cent. In this total the military expenses have figured as 23 per cent. of the whole, those of the United States, through its pension list, included. The public debts of Europe have been increased $5,600,000,000. In countries which have grown too restless under the taxation thus caused, such as France, Russia, Sweden, resort has been had to "conversion," or compulsory lowering of interest. Italy is on the verge of bankruptcy, and Greece is actually bankrupt. Except in England, very few articles escape taxation, and now there is a general turning towards a progressive income tax as the best mode of getting at people who already pay on everything they buy or consume. At the same time there is a strong tendency to turn over to the Government those branches of industry in which individuals now make the most money—the manufacture of tobacco and of matches, the transportation of letters and parcels, the telegraph and telephone.

On top of all this come the taxes for the protection of native industry. In France, in Italy, in Spain, and in Germany these taxes have all been increased. In fact, America may be said to be the only country in which they have been reduced. M. de Molinari, the writer of the article in question, estimates the tax paid by the French consumer in wheat alone at about $150,000,000 annually, for the profit of about 800,000 landholders. Calculating in the same way the cost of protection to meat, fish, sugar, tools, etc., he sets down the cost of protection in France at $400,000,000. Nevertheless, one effect of the tariff wars with foreign states in which the Government has engaged, has been the emigration of many French factories to Belgium and the closing of others. Against these increasing burdens, nothing but the extraordinary progress of science and invention during the last twenty years would have enabled the world to make head.

But now, when taxation has apparently reached its uttermost limits, there comes the spectre of socialism to deepen the prevailing gloom. Nobody but ardent socialists, who are a comparatively small body, believes that any large state will ever be organized on a socialistic basis. Any such organization would involve slavery in some form or other, and slavery the mass of men will always resist, sword in hand if necessary. But the agitation for socialism almost necessarily diffuses through the working class a sense of wrong or hatred, more or less intense, of the owners or accumulators of property, and a strong desire to throw on "the state" the care of themselves and their families. The great plan of giving everybody a pension when he reaches the age of sixty is one of the worst blows ever dealt against prudence, frugality, and the habit of saving. The tendency, too, of the labor movements, especially on the continent of Europe, is to lower the value of character for commercial purposes, and to make the retention of places depend more on the strength of the organization a man has behind him than on his personal value to the employer. No reason for supposing that a socialist "state" would be managed by any better men than those who now manage states has ever been given; but the belief has spread largely among the poor and more ignorant class, and is to some extent fostered by preachers, philanthropists, and professional socialists, that if a government with enormously increased powers were set up with men like Powderly, Sovereign, and Debs at the head of it, the happiness of the masses would be largely increased.

To cap the climax, the power of issuing currency has been laid hold of as one potent means of promoting human welfare, and stands now in the forefront of measures of relief for distress, and, though the most patent of human delusions, has been found thus far the hardest to combat, because it has seized upon considerable numbers of persons who pass as economists, but are in reality philanthropists in whose brain "economy" is simply a mode of catching votes. This confused state of the popular mind about the currency has been well illustrated among us by the popular belief, in many parts of the country, that if silver money were set afloat in large quantities, poor people would somehow get some of it into their pockets—an hallucination which has evidently grown out of the "per capita" idea—that is, that every country needs a certain amount of money "per capita." This does no great credit to human intelligence, but it is one of the political forces of the day.

The civilized world is, in fact, apparently threatened with a calamity somewhat similar to that which overthrew the Roman Empire—that is, the seizure of the powers of government by semi-civilized men, or civilized men acting under their direction, and the management of states without the benefit of recorded human experience. From that shock it took a thousand years to recover; that is, there was no recovery until the world rediscovered what the barbarians had buried. No such disaster can overtake us, because there is no danger of the destruction of the great instruments and products of civilization. We have the press and printing, which the mediæval world had not, and we have science, and the habit of discussion, and the practice of government by a majority vote; so that, although our Goths and Vandals may make us for a good while very uncomfortable, they cannot make the world over.

ITALY IN AFRICA.

Mantua, February 11, 1895.

How Italy drifted into Africa is now a matter of history; that she means to remain there, despite the Mahdi, and with or without the consent of the Abyssinians, is a stubborn fact, proved not only by recent battles here against Dervishes, there against rebel chiefs, but also by her occupation of positions which were not contemplated, or at any rate not avowed, in 1890, when the convention between Menelik

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II., King of Shoa, supreme ruler of Abyssinia, and Humbert I., King of Italy, for mutual protection was ratified. Whether King Menelik be a faithful or a faithless ally is an open question; an absolute sovereign he is not, as the twenty-four ras (or feudal lords) who own the territory exercise royal functions, being responsible to the crown for little more than the local taxes which are paid in kind; waging war on one another, offering their services to the governor of the Italian colony, or suddenly attacking his outposts, at their own savage will. Since 1891 a radical change has been effected in Italy's moral and material methods in Eritrea, whose civil and military governor, Oreste Baratieri, a chip of the old Garibaldian block, an enthusiastic believer in colonial expansion in Africa, has inherited not only many of the military qualities of his chief—deliberate premeditation, sudden, swift action, the following up of victory to its just limits, thus far and no further; but also the great Liberator's precepts and practice in dealing with his own officers and soldiers, the enforcement of just and humane action in their dealings with native populations, and especially with native troops; and we may add Garibaldi's practice, in his brief, pithy reports, of giving every officer or special corps their special and due share of merit.

Baratieri, born in 1841, at Condino in the Austrian Tyrol, escaped from the college of Arco at the age of eighteen. Captured and punished, he effected his second flight in time to join Garibaldi in 1860 and land with the Thousand at Marsala, won his spurs at Calatafimi and on the barricades of Palermo, was promoted for his brilliant conduct on the Volturno, and received the medal for military valor. After the disbandment of the volunteers, he entered the crack bersaglieri corps as captain, and at the head of his company kept an Austrian brigade at bay for three hours at Custozza—a feat signalized as "wonderful" in the report of the Austrian staff. As editor of the *Military Review* his articles on military matters were translated into German, and Gen. Moltke paid him high compliments during his attendance at the manœuvres of the German army. Baratieri, like Gen. Bixio, was from the first a fervent believer in Italian colonization in Africa; and shortly after the disastrous affair of Dogali, he obtained "permission" to exchange into one of the corps destined for Massowah, to the great grief of his regiment, where he was adored by officers and men.

Affairs in Africa were in a muddle. After the disaster of Dogali, reinforcements were sent to repel the "King of Kings," who was marching to support Ras Alula, when, turning aside to rout the Dervishes, he was slain, and Crispi, taking advantage of Menelik's friendly offices, negotiated the famous treaty, at the same time inducing the sultans of Obbia on the Somali coast to recognize the protectorate of Italy. By the first treaty with Menelik, recognized as Emperor of Abyssinia, the Italian protectorate ended at Asmara; later they demanded an extension south to the Mareb. To this, Menelik or the ras demurred; also the Emperor protested against the seventeenth article of the treaty, which *bound* him, according to the Italian translation, to treat with no European power save through the Italian Government, whereas he maintained that in the original the text ran that he *might* do so if he chose. This was the first rift within the lute. Then Ras Alula imprisoned and ill-treated the Italian Salimbeni and his companions. Count Pietro Antonelli, sent on a mission by Crispi to Menelik, obtained a very clear insight into the state of affairs. Menelik was anxious to keep on friendly terms with Italy, but the ras who had been devoted to King John, the warrior King of Kings, despised Menelik; many would have supported the claims to the throne of the ambitious Ras Mangasha of recent notoriety, he being the illegitimate son of King John. Meanwhile Gen. Orero had occupied Adua, in Tigre, then withdrew, and in June, 1890, a serio-comic general reconciliation took place. Ras Alula embraced Salimbeni; Ras Mangasha, Ras Alula, and Antonelli also embraced, and swore on the cross and on the Bible an everlasting friendship, and for a time things went more smoothly. The Italian possessions were styled the colony of Eritrea, and Gen. Gandolfi was named civil and military governor.

The best account of the colony in 1890 was given by Sydney Sonnino, now Minister of Finance. Though hopeful of the future, he was impressed by the military disorganization, the want of roads, the wasteful expenditure. The colony was going from bad to worse when, in 1892, the Italian officers being no longer able to keep the native troops in hand, and desertions being frequent, Rudini gave the command to Baratieri, who had his own views as to "African colonization," and would remain at his post only so long as he was allowed to carry them out. From the first moment of his arrival he made it known that what was required in Eritrea was a few picked officers and men as leaders of the native troops, friendly dealings with Menelik and all the ras who proffered friendship, with a sharp watch kept by the Italian residents in all the "protected" territories; absolute distrust of the Dervishes, who, after the occupation of Keren and Agordat, showed themselves more than ever hostile to the Italians. In less than a year a change for the better was everywhere visible; public security was established, stations of carabinieri, with natives under their command, were posted at Asmara and Keren, at Assab, Archico, Moncullo, Dogali, Ghinda, Godofelassi, Nocra, enabling the tribes to cultivate their lands in peace, fearless of raids; new roads were traced and made; the kidnappers of the Beni-Amer tribes were placed under strict surveillance, so that no more girls or children were carried off, and so thorough was the inspection of caravans that the slave-traders found it next to impossible to embark the slaves captured in the Sudan at Massowah, as for years had been their practice. The colony was divided into the district of Massowah, where the administration, judicial, social, and political, is carried on as in Italy, and into dependent territories, where the native laws and uses are respected and applied as far as possible; tribunals of arbitration was set up at Keren and Asmara, judges of peace in the villages, and everywhere resident officials bound to keep the governor "up to date" on all military and local matters. The roads from Ghinda to Asmara, from Asmara to Keren, traced by military engineers, were made chiefly by the natives, and so was it with the digging of artesian wells and the erection of lighthouses. Public hygiene has had close attention: all the water is analyzed, the cisterns cleansed and others constructed; a commission superintends the food sold; the houses are now built of stone to replace the straw huts. Schools where Italian, Arabic, arithmetic, hygiene, and gymnastics are taught have been opened for girls and boys, and bread distributed to encourage attendance. The division of lands was commenced to define what belongs to the tribes, what is ecclesiastical property, how much the state can take possession of and distribute to the natives and to Italian emigrants. Finally, the entire military department was reorganized.

Baratieri from the first maintained that if Italy is to succeed in Africa, it must be with native troops under Italian officers, with few or no Italian soldiers save for the engineering and artillery departments. Hence he divided the native troops into permanent and auxiliary, with departments in Barca, Sarae, Oculè-Kusai, and in the territory round Asmara, with telegraph lines insuring communication between them. Hitherto the governors and commanders-in-chief have resided exclusively in Massowah. Baratieri decided to pass half the year on the high table-land of Asmara, and personally inspected at unexpected moments camps, forts, hospitals, police stations, etc. "Keep your men well in hand and get hold of their hearts," is his constant advice to the Italian officers. With the ras he has tried to keep on friendly terms, but, while putting faith in them to a certain extent, has kept his own powder dry. As to the Dervishes, he has always expected them to attack at any moment. In November, 1893, they took advantage of his absence in Italy, whither he had gone to confer with the Government on military and civil matters, to make a desperate assault on Agordat. I must pass over the details of the successful defence of that place by Col. Arimondi, left in command by Baratieri. On the Governor's return he at once laid his plans for future operations, concentrating ammunition and provisions in Agordat. On the 12th of July, 1894, he assumed the command of the corps destined to march on Kassala—56 officers, 41 Italian soldiers, 2,510 ascars (native Abyssinian troops), 146 horses, 248 mules, 183 camels. Everywhere they found traces of the recent raids of the Dervishes, villages destroyed and abandoned. The enemy were encamped to the north and northeast of the city. At six A. M. on the morning of the 17th of July the van opened fire on their cavalry, just setting out for a raid; then the Italian cavalry charged, and the attack became general, lasting uninterruptedly for three hours. At ten A. M. Baratieri and Arimondi were in the market-place victors, and a halt was ordered, as the troops had marched all night before the combat.

The Governor's first care was to liberate some 100 Egyptian prisoners, and to enforce respect on the part of his troops for the members of the various tribes gathered there to cultivate the fertile shores of the Gasc, to whom he distributed quantities of the dura found in the depots of the Mahdi. Numbers of them asked to be allowed to go to the Eritrea colony; others, finding that the Italians meant to hold Kassala and build a fort there, preferred to remain. The Mahdi fled across the Atbara, leaving 52 banners, 2 guns, 600 muskets, 700 lances, 200 camels, mules, and horses. On the 23d the Governor quitted Kassala, leaving Major Turitto, with some hundred natives and their officers and engineers, to complete the fort which King Humbert himself named "Fort Baratieri." The absolute silence maintained, the rapid march and instantaneous victory, astonished the colony and Italy; the ras of Abyssinia were profuse in their congratulations and offers of native bands to guard the frontiers against fresh attacks of the Mahdi. Baratieri accepted their offers, but evidently distrusted their intentions, bidding his residents keep a sharp lookout on their movements.

The rest of the year passed quietly. The Pope consented to send to Eritrea an Apostolic Nun-

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cio, who received a grand welcome, gladdening the hearts of the Italians by his encomiums on "our" brave King Humbert, "our" gracious Queen Margaret. The exchange of the Italian sisters of charity and Italian Capuchins for the French Lazzarists added to their satisfaction. In November Baratieri appealed to the European residents to form a body of volunteers, and in one day 320 citizens of Massowah responded to the appeal. He had asked for no reinforcements, but had strengthened the garrisons of Asmara, Keren, and Kassala, when suddenly came the news of the rebellion of Batha Agos, one of the Abyssinian commanders, who, from the earliest days of the colony, had given proofs of friendship for the Italians, and had been promoted by Baldassera and later by Baratieri. Seizing the "residents" and the telegraph officers, he was preparing to raise the whole province when Capt. Castellazzi and other officers marched against him, killed or captured the 300 armed followers, killing Batha Agos himself at Halai. Baratieri, rightly suspecting that the rebellion of the bands of Oculè-Kusai, commanded by Batha Agos, was not an isolated case, but was probably fomented by Ras Mangasha, and possibly by Menelik, marched promptly to Adi Ugra, where he established Arimondi, now major-general, in command. Later, convinced of Ras Mangasha's treasonable intent, by forced marches he proceeded to Adi Sadi, where from a height he saw an immense mass of Tigrine troops marching northwards. At dawn the enemy's two camps were visible. The artillery, well posted, opened the ball; the troops converging to the right attacked the whole front of the enemy, who, though taken by surprise, responded en masse and soon made a move to turn Baratieri's left wing, but were outmanœuvred. The battle raged for twelve mortal hours, the enemy bringing up a strong reserve force at three P. M., but at five they were silent, and during the night they decamped, leaving their wounded, arms, banners, and some tents on the field. Baratieri followed in hot pursuit till the enemy reached the fastnesses of Agamè. The Italians, 3,600 all told, thus routed 10,000, led by Ras Mangasha in person. Not a single soldier deserted, so that Menelik's boast that the "Abyssinians, brave against the Dervishes, would never fight against their brethren in blood and faith," falls to the ground. On the 18th, leaving two companies in observation at Senafè, Baratieri returned with the rest of the troops to Asmara, everywhere fêted by the populations and the clergy who are weary to death of the turbulent ras. Ras Mangasha's correspondence with Batha Agos and Menelik has been seized, but Baratieri's final report has not yet arrived.

At present all is quiet at Kassala. Ras Mangasha, deserted by the mass of his troops, seems still seeking to form a fresh army. What Menelik and Ras Alula, who is with the King, think or meditate is not known. Baratieri does not desire reinforcements, save a few officers, material, and telegraph wires. He has just been promoted from the rank of major-general to that of lieutenant-general. His telegrams and brief reports demonstrate his pride and satisfaction at the conduct of the native troops and Italian officers all. But Italy in Africa has her hands full to hold her own against Dervishes and rebel ras. J. W. M.

SOME CONTINENTAL LIBRARIES.—V.

FLORENCE, February 18, 1895.

ITALIAN Government libraries exist in the following places: Bologna, Cagliari, Catania, Cremona, Florence, Genoa, Lucca, Milan, Modena, Messina, Naples, Padua, Palermo, Pavia, Pisa, Parma, Rome, Sassari, Turin, and Venice. Of these Florence has four, a larger number than any other city except Rome; and the principal one, the Biblioteca Centrale Nazionale, may be called the dean of the entire faculty. It is the largest collection of books in Italy. Its foundation as a public library was laid in the eighteenth century by Antonio Magliabechi. In his will this lover of books and men left his large collection "to the poor of the city of Florence." From that time to the present the library has been the recipient of many gifts and bequests, which, with its purchases, have made it a collection of over 435,000 volumes and more than 450,000 pamphlets, 18,000 MSS., and 11,000 musical compositions, according to the last printed report of 1893 and a statement made by the prefect, Signor Chilovi, in November, 1894. It occupies eighty-seven rooms—three floors of three palaces—and, even with this, is embarrassed for space. A new building is anticipated in the not distant future.

The first attempt to furnish the library with books by means of a tax on the issues of printing-offices was made in 1736 by the Grand Duke of Tuscany, Gian Gastone, who directed that a free copy of everything published in Tuscany should be deposited in this library. There were many difficulties in the way of carrying out this law, owing chiefly to the objections and evasions of the printers, and it was virtually inoperative for many years. In June, 1870, Victor Emanuel extended the law to cover the publications of the entire kingdom, resulting in an average addition to the library of ten to twenty thousand volumes and pamphlets per year. Evasions of the law are still not infrequent, especially in the case of costly publications. In the eighteenth century, a hundred years before the confiscation of the monastic libraries under Victor Emanuel, the Grand Duke Pietro Leopoldo had suppressed certain religious houses and given their books to the Magliabechiana, and the French Government when in power did the same thing. In 1861 the Palatina and the Magliabechiana were combined and took the present name of the Biblioteca Nazionale. One of the most interesting acquisitions of recent years was that of the collection of Savonaroliana got together by Count Carlo Capponi, and sold by his heirs in 1883.

The main entrance to the Library is from the portico of the Uffizi. The reading-room, on the first floor, has been full every time I have visited it, and the one table out of the nine reserved for the use of women has been well patronized. The majority of the readers seem to be students from the University and Higher Institute, with a sprinkling of professors, priests, professional men, etc. This room contains the larger part of the original Magliabechian bequest, and a bust of the very ugly but strongly individual face and head of Magliabechi surveys the room. Among the current periodicals (about one hundred and fifty) placed here for reading, I counted some fifteen to twenty American magazines, among which were several such popular ones as *Harper's Monthly*, the *Century*, the *Popular Science Monthly*, and the *Literary News*. An adjoining room, called the MS. room, is for the use of those students who need extreme quiet in the pursuance of more absorbing work.

The catalogue used by the public is a general one, compiled in 1847 and transcribed in 1860–'64, in thirty-two large volumes. The large influx of additions after the promulgation and enforcement of the tax on all Italian publications found the library somewhat unprepared for the additional work thus made necessary, and lacking sufficient space in its catalogues; and a supplementary catalogue on cards became necessary. The Palatina, and the Targioni, the Nencini, Passerini, and Guicciardini collections have each a separate catalogue, and there is one of incunabula and an index to the collection of ancient music. A general catalogue of the entire library, arranged in twenty classes, was undertaken in 1864, but given up for reasons of necessity, and another begun about ten years ago, which is still in the making. In the matter of classification, no one system has yet been applied to the whole library; some collections are arranged by size, some by subject-matter, some by literary form. The bound periodicals are grouped by the decimal classification of Mr. Melvil Dewey, the New York State Librarian. The inventory is kept on cards, with the exception of that of pamphlets, which is in volumes, and is placed in a locked case to which only a few of the employees have access. The catalogues are open to any one who wishes to consult them, though lack of space prevents their use by many persons at one time. The same lack of room prevents the exposition of all reference-books and periodicals, and a careful selection is therefore made of those which experience shows to be most in demand.

The library lends books under the usual conditions of Government libraries, and the former prefect of the Nazionale, Signor Sacconi, was in favor of extending this privilege, leaving it optional with the librarian in each case to say how many books should go out to one reader, and how long they might be kept. In seven years he reports but one book lost by lending, and that by accident and not through any evil intention on the part of the borrower.

An interesting comment is made by the same good authority on the system of competitive examinations for the filling of library positions. In the case of the superior employees, scholarship, while necessary, is not all that is necessary, and he claims that in making it the sole test, as is the case in competitive examinations, no regard is paid to moral character or to executive qualities. The librarian or prefect is obliged to accept as subordinates persons whose qualifications fit them for only a part of their work, and who need constant supervision. He arrives at the conclusion that these officers should be of two classes, those chosen for their scholarship and knowledge of books, who may eventually be fitted to take the highest work of the library, the choosing and buying of the books, and those who show administrative ability, and who must be retained in the offices requiring executive skill, but who cannot expect promotion into the upper grade just mentioned. The same difficulty exists in choosing the prefect and the librarian, and Signor Sacconi makes the suggestion that, where several Government libraries exist in the same city, each be placed under the charge of a librarian or executive officer, and altogether under one prefect, who shall be a scholar of reputation and shall attend to the symmetrical growth of all the collections under his charge. This suggestion was made in 1883, in a MS. "relation" on the Biblioteca Nazionale, to which I had access through the kindness of Signora Sacconi-Ricci, daughter of the former prefect of the Nazionale, and herself assistant-librarian of the Marucelliana. So far as I know, no steps have been taken towards adopting it, but to me it seems a very reasonable proposition.

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The alumni, who had formerly to serve at least a year gratuitously, are now allowed a nominal payment. They must have a doctorate in law, literature, or philosophy, or the diploma of the school of paleography in Florence, and must pass a competitive examination. From thirty-four years of experience, Signor Sacconi records it as his belief that the test of competitive examinations alone is quite as apt to give poor assistants as good ones. The nature of the examinations for the superior positions of a library I have already indicated in a previous letter. The usual method of procedure after an examination is the appointment, by the minister of public instruction, of the most successful candidates to a year's trial, with a stipend of one hundred lire a month. If the year's work prove satisfactory, the alumni are placed on the roll in the lowest class of the category to which they belong. The necessity of inquiry into the moral character of the applicant was made most evident in 1870 and 1871, in the Nazionale, by a series of thefts carried on through several months by one of the distributors. A second-hand book-dealer in Florence sent regularly to the library to indicate to this employee the books he desired, and the employee found means of abstracting them.

The heating of the Nazionale is accomplished at present by furnaces, and the rooms used by the public have always seemed to me warm and comfortable. Up to 1867 the ubiquitous scaldino or brazier was the only means of heating, and was abandoned because it was found that the ashes were annoying to readers and injurious to the books. There is apparently no dampness anywhere in the library. The hours of opening of the library, summer and winter, are from ten to four. The number of volumes given out in 1892, from the last printed report of 1893, was more than 66,000, to more than 56,000 readers. These are not as large numbers as those reported by the Vittorio Emanuele at Rome, but it must be remembered that the latter library is open in the evening, and that it supplies a much larger population. Nearly 3,000 volumes were lent in Florence, and more than 1,000 to other libraries in Italy, while more than 100 were borrowed from other cities. The right to a copy of all Italian publications includes periodicals and newspapers, and the Nazionale has therefore a collection, constantly increasing, of 900 newspapers and 1,200 magazines. It collects and preserves everything, down to railway time-tables and play-bills. At present, order is being brought out of the chaos of 60,000 legal memorials presented in the Italian courts. To this library, since 1886, has been given the task of printing fortnightly a Bulletin of the most important Italian publications, and this admirably conducted work is known and appreciated wherever there are libraries. The Bulletin formerly issued by the Vittorio Emanuele of Rome, of modern foreign works in Italian libraries, has unfortunately ceased publication. In this the library containing the work was always indicated by a mark opposite its title.

The rarities of the library are numerous, and space forbids the mention of more than a few, and these chosen rather at haphazard: A MS. of the 'Divina Commedia,' of the fourteenth century, with the marginal notes made in Dante's lifetime; a letter written by the poet's son, Dante d'Jacopo Alighieri; a MS. of the 'Decameron' written in 1396 by a Benedictine; Brunetto Latini in a MS. of 1285; and, of incunabula, a copy of the third book printed by Fust & Schœffer in 1459; the celebrated Maguntina Bible; a Terence with marginal MS. notes by Politian—in fact, several works with notes from the same source; the first book printed in Florence, by Cennini, who rediscovered the secret of printing after a careful examination of the issues of the German press; the first illustrated book printed in Italy; the Florentine Homer of 1488, presented by the editor to Piero de' Medici, etc. Of editions of Dante there are Ridobeatina's, a copy that belonged to Ariosto and that bears his signature and notes, one with Landino's commentary and illustrations by Botticelli, the same on parchment, a unique copy, presented by Landino to the Signory of Florence, etc., etc. Of Aldines, the library has 1,087 volumes, and of Elzevirs, etc., 352 volumes, and the Savonaroliana numbers 347 editions.

The funds at the disposition of the administration amount to about 52,000 lire ($10,400) a year. The admission of women into library-work has been conceded in no Continental country except Italy, I believe. One woman is employed in the Vittorio Emanuele, three in the Biblioteca Nazionale, and one as assistant-librarian in the Marucelliana. Most of these ladies I have met, and found deeply interested in their work, as well as in the comparisons we were able to make between libraries here and at home. I should fail greatly in what is a pleasure as well as an obligation if I did not speak more fully of one of these, Signora Giulia Sacconi-Ricci. From the moment of my entrance into the Marucellian Library and my kind reception at the hands of the librarian, the Cavalier Bruschi, and Signora Ricci, I felt myself in an atmosphere of "mental hospitality" both to people and ideas. There is not, in the six or seven rooms of the library, such an overplus of books but that everything is kept in the best of order, and the silence in the reading-room, which was generally well filled even in the worst weather, was less disturbed by conversation than in any library I had yet visited. In the room reserved for women and presided over by the assistant-librarian, there were always a number of university girls or teachers, industriously turning the leaves of books of reference or consulting MSS., etc.; and the occasional tributes of flowers brought by them to Signora Ricci testified to her popularity and gave a feminine and home-like air to the room. The reference-books and bibliographical collection are kept in this room, and men occasionally study here if they prefer, but for the most part they "go to their own place."

The Marucellian collection is rather more modern in character than most of the libraries here, confining its purchases chiefly to modern books of importance. Its hours are from nine to three in winter, nine to five in summer, and from six to nine on winter evenings. In these evening hours it is apt to be crowded, as many as two hundred persons frequently requiring to be waited upon in one evening. It is the only library open in the evening, I am told. The collection amounts to about 120,000 volumes and pamphlets, including very few rarities, but a great many expensive art-works, and a collection of one hundred volumes of rare engravings illustrating the history of the art with great completeness. This collection was made by Francesco Marucelli, founder of the library. In addition to its own catalogues, the library possesses a card-catalogue by subjects of the Biblioteca Nazionale, formerly owned by Signor Sacconi and by him presented to the Marucelliana. Of its own collection there are a bound MS. catalogue by subjects, kept in the reading-room, an alphabetical catalogue in twenty-two volumes which is free for public consultation, and one of incunabula on loose sheets, fastened by an invention of Signora Sacconi-Ricci's, the catalogue itself having been beautifully made by her on the Hammond typewriter. The most interesting bit of antiquity in the library is the MS. of the 'Mare Magnum,' compiled by Francesco Marucelli. It occupies one hundred vellum-bound volumes, and was put into print a few years ago by the labors of Professor Guido Biagi.

More interest in the progress of librarianship and a better acquaintance with the technical literature of the profession in other countries were evidenced here, it seemed to me, than in any other library I had visited. The cataloguing rules of Prof. Karl Dziatzko, for example, had been translated from the German into Italian by the librarian and published in Florence, and the assistant-librarian's devotion had even impelled her to visit libraries and take notes on them, in the course of her wedding-journey a few years ago, the results of her investigations appearing in book-form after her return.

There still remain to be spoken of the Riccardiana, the wonderful Laurenziana, and the great subscription library of the city, Vieusseux's; but these must wait for time and space to do them justice. MARY W. PLUMMER.

Correspondence.

ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your editorial on Elementary Instruction in the *Nation* for February 21, in speaking of the Report of the Committee of Fifteen, you mention the report of my subcommittee on correlation of studies as disappointing, for a number of reasons which are very clearly, but not, I think, quite fairly stated. For instance, you say, "Six years is ample time for the strictly elementary course, and to insist upon eight years is simply to yield to the influence of a bad but prevailing custom." This sentence comes after the statement that assent to all of my propositions is impossible, and implies that my report insists on eight years for the elementary course when six years will do. Now, as a matter of fact I have taken (as I think) great pains in the report to show that the eight-year period is too long for the work required to master the strictly elementary studies. It leads, as I point out, to a sort of mechanical thoroughness which arrests the development or growth of the pupil on a mechanical plane. I therefore suggest that two of the chief branches of the secondary school, namely, algebra and Latin or some modern language, be introduced into the last two years of the elementary school, substituting Latin for English grammar in the eighth year and algebra for arithmetic in the seventh and eighth years. In view of this recommendation and the arguments on which it is based, I am puzzled at your statement, further on, that "arguments are adduced [in the report] for postponing the use of the simpler algebraic processes."

Besides this very important matter of curtailing the time for mere elementary studies, the report recommends the substitution of a new basis for the selection of school studies. The old one was psychological and formal. According to it, gymnastics or chess-playing would stand as good a chance for selection as manual training, grammar, or arithmetic. On

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the sociological basis, those studies would be adopted which prepare the child to receive the lessons of civilization and partake of its goods, contributing his own mite for the benefit of the whole, helping and being helped. The psychological basis is retained, but only in a secondary place, to assist in deciding such questions as relate to the best period for taking up a given branch of study, and the proper length of time for continuing it. A study is often continued too long in the elementary schools, and is necessarily deadening in its effects, and produces arrested development on some lower plane of activity. This danger is becoming plainer and plainer in the light of the new studies made upon children in school and out of school.

Another important departure in the sub-committee's report under question is the protest against too much English grammar, especially in the form of parsing works of literary art. Again and again in the report it is urged that the literary selection should be studied in such a way as to lead to an appreciation of it as a work of art. Literature is set forward as the leading study in the elementary school because of its value to the pupil in giving him an insight into human nature.

Again, the emphasis laid upon arithmetic in the elementary school hitherto is strongly condemned, and its mode of reasoning disparaged in comparison with the mode of reasoning employed by the mind upon practical concrete subjects involving literary, social, and moral questions.

Several other radical changes are recommended in this sub-committee's report, and on the whole it seems to me that the report will be extremely fortunate if it does not disappoint your readers rather in its radicalism than its conservatism.

Very respectfully, W. T. Harris.

Washington, D. C., February 26, 1895.

[It is true that Dr. Harris advocates the introduction of two secondary-school subjects into the later years of the elementary curriculum, but he keeps that curriculum eight years long. That is made necessary only either by bad teaching or by spinning out the instruction in the rudiments to an inordinate extent. On page 40 of his report he reduces the algebra to be taught in the elementary schools to a pretty small amount—so much so that Mr. Greenwood makes this a special point of dissent (pp. 84, 85). What Dr. Harris says as to English grammar and the undue emphasis hitherto laid on arithmetic, is entitled to all praise.—Ed. Nation.]

BARON DE MÉNEVAL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The notice of Baron de Méneval's Memoirs published by the *Nation* in its number of February 21 conveys such an unjust estimate of the author of those memoirs that I deem it my duty to answer it. I have not a word to say in favor of or against the merits of the work. I only wish to call attention to certain misstatements made by the writer of the article concerning facts he evidently knew nothing about.

Speaking of M. de Méneval, he tells us that "the blood of a race of courtiers filled his veins." Later he speaks of "his grandfather in the halls of Versailles." The truth is, that M. de Méneval's family had always lived in the seclusion of the provinces, and none of his ancestors ever appeared at court. He himself was so little of a courtier that he never entered the Tuileries after 1815, and refused the peerage that was offered to him by Louis Philippe. Instead of a "light-hearted" gentleman, he was a man of retiring disposition, deep feelings, and austere character. Far from being a sycophant, he was the personification of dignity and modesty.

Further, it is said: "Méneval did live on with pen in hand." The only book he wrote is the one now mentioned; and he lived seventy-two years. Those memoirs, or rather souvenirs, were published by him in 1840 under the title 'Napoléon et Marie Louise: Souvenirs du Baron de Méneval.' They formed only two small volumes. At that time the only books or pamphlets written about Napoleon had been inspired by fear of the Bourbons and the basest ingratitude. The desire of defending the memory of the man who had been his friend and protector was not an ignoble one. At an epoch when those who had received titles, endowments, palaces, and money from the Emperor not only turned against him during his lifetime, but, after his death, assailed him with insults and often calumny, was it "canine virtue" or noble courage to defend him?

Admitting, even, that his admiration for Napoleon carried him too far, who is the most worthy of respect, Monsieur de Méneval or Madame de Rémusat?

A Grandson of Baron de Méneval.

February 26, 1895.

MEMOIRS OF LAREVELLIÈRE-LÉPEAUX.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the interesting description of these Memoirs which appeared in the *Nation* of February 21 is the statement that the Director "ordered that his manuscripts should not become accessible to anybody before 1873." This is a strange misunderstanding of what the Director's son, who edited his manuscripts, says about the matter in the introduction, dated March 15, 1873. Feeling that the lapse of fifty years since his father wrote the last line of the Memoirs required an explanation, he gives a detailed account of the various delays. His father had suggested in the "Observations Essentielles" which serve as a sort of preamble, that "Comme je veux qu'aucun nom, aucun fait ne soit déguisé dans mes mémoires, ils ne devront être publiés qu'à l'époque où il sera présumable que tous ceux qui y figurent n'existent plus."

Larevellière, furthermore, did not wish his words to serve as an arsenal for an assault upon men who, however they might have differed from him during the Revolution, were now defenders of liberty against the attacks of the Bourbons. But he did wish the Memoirs edited at once, so that the first favorable moment might be seized for their publication. Soon came the Revolution of 1830, bringing an Orleanist prince to the throne. As the Memoirs contained damaging facts in regard to the older Orleanist party, the son, who believed in the Monarchy of July, did not desire the manuscript published until the new dynasty was so solidly established that it would not suffer from such revelations. The Revolution of 1848 came and went, and during the early period of the Second Empire it was impossible to undertake "une publication aussi peu conforme que celle ci au culte des idées napoléoniennes." In 1870 the work was far advanced when the disasters of that fatal summer and the siege of Paris still further put off its completion. Postponement had at last become chronic. Although the Memoirs seem to have been printed not long after 1873, as stated in the *Nation* of February 14, the son requested that they be not published until his wife's death, which occurred only four years ago. But as President Carnot's term of office was then drawing to a close, and party bitterness was likely to make an unhappy use of whatever Larevellière had said of Carnot's grandfather, a colleague in the Directory, it seemed wise to reserve the publication until the present year.

A word in regard to the Director's name. It is a pity that his son chose the current form instead of the form which the Director himself used during the most important part of his political life, *i. e.*, L. M. Revellière-Lépeaux. His baptismal name was Louis-Marie de La Revellière. Lépeaux came from one of the family estates. Henry E. Bourne.

Western Reserve University.

AN INDEX ALWAYS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: At the close of your notice, February 28, p. 172, of Mr. Chadwick's excellent book, you say: "An index is perhaps not to be expected in a collection of what were originally lectures," etc. In the name of all that is decent in book-making, why should you, after your long and valiant service in the cause of good indexes in books, now condone an offence like the omission of an index from any book, except, perhaps, a dictionary? Such a book as Mr. Chadwick's needs an index as much as any; nor is it apparent why one should not be expected in a book "of what were originally lectures" as well as in any other. I have a note of two other books lately published which commit the unpardonable offence of appearing before the public indexless: the 'Life and Letters of Charles Loring Brace' and Hamilton W. Mabie's 'My Study Fire' (both series).

One may surely be pardoned, in making any allusion to your issue of this week, for expressing the intense satisfaction with which all lovers of good literature must read your editorial on "The New Criticism." It is "a most palpable hit" at a grievous literary evil, and must do good.—Very truly yours, W. I. F.

Amherst, March 1, 1895.

[We little thought our good would be evil spoken of. Our correspondent excepts dictionaries, and thereby lays himself open to our rebuke as surely as we to his. Beginning with its fifteenth volume, the 'Dictionary of National Biography' has been regularly indexed, to great advantage; and no cyclopædia is now completely serviceable without an index. —Ed. Nation.]

BAD DEBTS AND THE INCOME TAX.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I desire to call attention to a manifest error in the income-tax law, or rather in the interpretation of it by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue. On page 31 of the pamphlet sent out by that office, at section 12, it is

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stated that no bad debts can be deducted as losses unless the same were contracted *within the year* for which the return is made.

To illustrate the unfairness and absurdity of this proposition, let us take the case of a merchant, A, who in December, 1894, sells goods to B for $1,000. This sale is included in A's business for 1894. B is solvent when the sale is made and for a month afterwards. In January, 1895, B fails and becomes insolvent, and the $1,000 becomes absolutely uncollectible, according to the requirements of the law. Under the ruling of the Commissioner, A, in returning his income for 1894, could not deduct this $1,000 as a loss, because the debt was not contracted in that year, nor could such loss ever be deducted.

The Commissioner virtually lays down the rule that no lost debt can be deducted unless the claim was *contracted and lost in the same year*. This is on its face an absurdity. The law contains no such provision, and neither this law nor any other statute will bear any such construction. The first requisite of legal construction is conformity to common sense and the evident meaning of the statute, neither of which will sustain such an interpretation as the foregoing. The evident intention of the law is to permit merchants and others to charge off in any one year only the actually worthless debts which have become so since the previous year's settlement, and to prevent any one crediting himself with losses which do not legitimately belong to the year's business. This is the rule which all honest men follow in ascertaining the annual returns of their business, and is the only method by which the annual profit or income can be stated. It is evident that so hastily constructed a statute as the present income-tax law should receive more careful judicial construction than can be given it by the clerical force of the Revenue Department. LEX.

CHICAGO, February 25, 1895.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS will shortly issue 'The Armenian Crisis—The Massacre of 1894: Its Antecedents and Significance,' by Frederick Davis Greene, with illustrations.

Forthcoming publications of Messrs. Scribner are 'Lotos-Time in Japan,' by Henry T. Finck; 'The Peoples and Politics of the Far East,' by Henry Norman; 'Churches and Castles of Mediæval France,' by Walter C. Larned; 'Letters of a Baritone,' from Florence, by Francis Walker; 'Essays on Scandinavian Literature,' by Prof. H. H. Boyesen; and 'The Making of the Nation,' by Gen. Francis A. Walker.

'The Story of Christine Rochefort,' about to be published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., is by a granddaughter of Rufus Choate, Mrs. Helen Choate Prince.

'Wolfe,' by A. G. Bradley; 'Colin Campbell,' by Archibald Forbes; and 'Nelson,' by J. K. Laughton, will be the next additions to Macmillan's "Men of Action" series.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. announce 'Forests and Forestry,' by B. E. Fernow, chief of the division of forestry in the Department of Agriculture; and 'Marriage, the Family, and Divorce,' by Prof. Geo. E. Howard of the Leland Stanford University.

'Chambers's Concise Gazetteer' (Lippincott) has a clear field of usefulness and is decidedly to be recommended. It has been well if anonymously edited, and is in the longer articles by no means dry reading. It is selective, of course, but will answer ordinary demands in a satisfactory manner. 'Chambers's Encyclopædia' has served as a basis of compilation. Its notices of the Louisville tornado of 1890, the Seattle and Spokane fires and Johnstown flood of 1889, and the Charleston earthquake of 1886 show it to be well up to date. Often the population of places is given from two censuses, as 1880 and 1890. Accent is usually indicated, and pronunciation often in the more difficult cases, as Hawarden (pron. Harden). Not infrequently books of reference are named. The usage of this gazetteer in the case of capes is to enter under the name proper, as Horn (Cape); or a cross-reference sends us from Good Hope (Cape) to Cape of Good Hope. Only two lakes are entered under Lake, and no mountain under Mountain (except Mont Blanc, Mont Cenis). As far as possible the latter are grouped under ranges, Alps, Appalachian, White Mountains, Cascade Range (in the case of Mt. Rainier, for example); sometimes we are referred to the country, as to Russia for the Ural Mountains. The Saint names are grouped together under S. The United States is well looked after. We miss Mt. Desert.

The 'Laboratory Manual of Physics and Applied Electricity,' arranged and edited by Prof. Edward L. Nichols of Cornell University, which has recently been published by Macmillan, is admirably adapted to supply the needs of the modern physical laboratory. The first of the two volumes is intended for beginners, and gives explicit directions for the experimental work, together with some demonstrations and statements of principles. The second volume is occupied with schemes and suggestions of work for seniors and advanced students; especial attention being given to the needs of those who are preparing to become electrical engineers. The two volumes are of equal length, and together contain something over 800 pages, but do not, as the editor states, "attempt to provide a complete and sufficient source of information for laboratory students," who are encouraged to make continual reference to other works and to original sources.

Students of physical chemistry who are unfamiliar with German will welcome the translation of Ostwald's 'Physico-Chemical Measurements,' by James Walker (Macmillan). The book is written not for the beginner, but for the chemist or physicist who desires to become practically acquainted with the borderland common to both sciences. Both purpose and contents distinguish this book from the existing handbooks for the physical laboratory, and it introduces the student to a region of experimental work which has already proved of great fruitfulness to chemistry. No one is better qualified than Prof. Ostwald for the preparation of such a work. As one of the leaders in the modern field of physical chemistry, he has not only the largest practical experience in the laboratory processes which are described, but also the gift of exact and clear presentation. He has been fortunate in his translator, who has given us an excellent piece of work, in pleasing contrast to much that is inflicted on a long-suffering public.

The most important publication of the past year relating to physical chemistry is that of a second edition of Landolt and Börnstein's 'Physicalisch-Chemische Tabellen.' The accumulation of data has been so rapid since the appearance of the 'Tabellen' ten years ago, that this new edition contains more than twice as many pages (563) as its predecessor. It is all that one can ask for in a reference-book—full and exact; compiled as far as possible from original sources and the sources cited; conveniently arranged; clearly and generously printed; and well bound in covers of moleskin.

To limit the 'Text-Book of Anatomy and Physiology for Nurses,' modestly described as "compiled" by Diana Clifford Kimber (Macmillan), to the class designated in its title, is to depreciate and to neglect other deserving students. This well-arranged and admirable account of the machinery and methods of life deserves a place in every high-grade school for young women. The author, for she is such as truly as any one outside of the little group of original investigators, has the true teaching faculty, and has produced a volume that merits the admirable illustrations and the excellent make-up which the publishers have given it.

It is always tantalizing to read pathology, because the pathologist stops with his statement of damages, and only by inference, and then obscurely, shows a mode of avoidance or of repair. This is emphasized just now by the appearance of the second and concluding volume of the monumental 'Text-Book of Pathology,' by the Aberdeen professor, D. J. Hamilton, in two parts, of more than eleven hundred pages, copiously illustrated (Macmillan). The work touches every conceivable point in the long catalogue of human ills, and includes such cognate matters as systematic bacteriology and animal parasites. Where conditions or hypotheses are still undetermined, it frankly says so; where they are determined, its statements, as far as we have been able to examine, may be depended upon. We commend but cannot review this mass of erudition. It is very thoroughly indexed, and has a voluminous bibliography.

One who observes the antics of the great herd of half-groomed men who roam over the ranges of the liberal professions must sometimes think that "liberal" means free, and that, like the high seas or the plains, these ranges are open to all comers. Its best friends often mourn in this way over medicine, whether looking at the *ad-captandum* methods of the practitioner on money bent, or at the "popular" Treatments or Methods with which the market is flooded, and sometimes at the verbose and obscure Systems and Treatises that lack system and require elucidation. A monograph that is dignified but not pedantic, attentive to particulars but not to trivialities, clear in style and replete with observation controlled by study, is therefore very welcome. Such is 'The Senile Heart,' by George William Balfour, M.D. (St. And.), LL.D. (Ed.), whose right to those honors these pages show upon their face. It is a book for physicians, but the introductory chapter at least would be attractive to any intelligent reader, and connected passages all through it carry the same untechnical charm. Macmillan & Co. publish it.

M. Edmond Biré has actually given us a bulky volume of literary essays, 'Études et Portraits' (Lyon: Vitte), which is not wholly or even mostly devoted to pitching into Victor Hugo, and somehow the book is all the better for this amazing omission. There are excellent articles on Chateaubriand, in which M. Biré establishes the fact that the 'Mémoires d'Outre-Tombe' did not appear, even in part, before Chateaubriand's death, on Lamartine, on Balzac's unsuccessful efforts to enter the French Academy, on Marmier and the Lomé nies, besides other writers less well known or less generally interesting.

M. Max Leclerc gives proof of prodigious

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courage in publishing his second volume on education and society in England, 'Les Professions et la Société en Angleterre' (Paris: Colin & Cie.). In so chauvinistic a country as France, to uphold the superiority of England in the practical education of its people, in its management of public affairs, in its commonsense view of daily life, is to run the risk of being called a good many hard names. But M. Leclerc sees that superiority, and believes it wisest for his countrymen to realize it, to study the reasons of it, and then to go to work to acquire it for France instead of merely raging at perfidious Albion and proclaiming themselves, maugre everything, the first and most enlightened nation in the world. Two things are encouraging: that there are Frenchmen bold enough to tell the truth to their countrymen, and that their countrymen listen and profit. For M. Leclerc's book is not the only one in which, of late, very serious lessons have been very plainly taught the too long self-satisfied Gallic race.

Anselme Mathieu, a Provençal poet, and one of the seven founders of the Félibrige, died recently at Avignon. He was known, in the florid terminology of his school, as the Poet of Kisses. Early in February he fell on the ice and broke a leg, and, being seventy years old, did not rally from the shock. Sumptuous obsequies were celebrated for him, and his old friend Frédéric Mistral was a chief mourner. Of the seven founders of the Félibrige two only are now left: Mistral and Alphonse Tavau. Five are dead: Aubanel, Roumanille, Roumieux, Brunet, and Mathieu.

Public Opinion, heretofore conducted in Washington, will transfer its publication office this week to New York, with, we should suppose, a gain rather than a loss in efficiency and freshness of compilation from the press utterances of the day.

The well-known English trade journal *Timber* has in its issue of January 23 matter of particular interest for the United States and Canada, being the illustrated report of a special correspondent concerning our lumber industry. There are also several views of the Manchester ship-canal, with its "timber pond." A folded map of the canal accompanies the letterpress.

From Westermann & Co. we receive in a neat portfolio a four-plate wall-map of the world's commerce, on a scale of 1:22,000,000 (equatorial). Four side-maps exhibit Central America (West Indies) on twice the above scale, and the North Sea and its canal, the Isthmus of Suez, and the Straits of Malacca at half scale. The compiler, A. Herrich, delineates the various regular steamship routes, with length in days, the chief railroads, the cables and land telegraphs, the navigable parts of rivers, etc. Mr. Boutelle would undoubtedly cavil at this map because of the meagre showing made in it by the commerce of Hawaii in comparison with Atlantic trade; but facts are stubborn things.

A geological map of Essex County, Mass., prepared by John H. Sears, curator of geology in the Peabody Academy of Science at Salem, has been published by the Essex Institute of that city. It presents the results of long-continued and patient field work by its author over a district of great complexity of structure. There are seventeen varieties of rocks, distinguished by different colors, and twelve other subdivisions, indicated by overprinted numbers; the formations exhibited being chiefly crystalline and metamorphic rocks of most irregular arrangement. The various forms of glacial drift, by which so large an area of the county is covered, are not indicated, although drumlins, inland marshes, and coastal sand-bars are extensively developed. These might be to advantage added to a later edition of the map. The present issue is dedicated to the Lawrence Scientific School of Harvard University, where Mr. Sears carried on his petrographical studies under the direction of Prof. Wolff while the map was in preparation.

The Geological Survey of Alabama has issued a report on the geology of the coastal plain of that State by Messrs. E. A. Smith, director of the Survey, L. C. Johnson, and D. W. Langdon, jr., in an octavo volume of 759 pages with a good number of illustrations. It gives an elaborate account of the successive strata of the plain, all gently dipping southward towards the Gulf, with a total thickness of over 5,000 feet. Brief local account is given of the characteristic topographic features of the plain —especially the inland belt of lowland eroded on weaker strata, and enclosed by the Chunnenugga ridge of harder strata; but no adequate explanation of this feature is presented.

The 'Geographical Work of the Future' is the subject of a suggestive article by Mr. H. R. Mill in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for February. After passing in review the various regions yet unexplored, he shows by the diagram of a pyramid the relations of the different departments of the science, the cap and keystone being commercial geography. The discussion and coördination of the classes of phenomena in these he contends will be the work of future geographers. Other papers are a review of Dr. A. Penck's 'Morphology of the Earth's Surface,' by Prof. J. Geikie, and an account of the highest village of the Caucasus, which leaves a favorable impression both of the welfare and the morals of the mountaineers.

Petermann's Mitteilungen for January opens with an article introductory to the publication of extracts from the diary of the late Dr. G. A. Fischer, describing his expedition into Central Africa for the rescue of Dr. Junker. It is accompanied by a fine map of the German and British East African possessions between Mt. Kenia and the Victoria Nyanza. This is followed by a report of the progress in the exploration of eastern Turkestan by the expedition of the Imperial Russian Geographical Society, and a summary of the observations made at various stations in Europe of the earthquake in Japan in March, 1894.

The sixth international geographical congress will be held in London next summer, under the auspices of the Royal Geographical Society, the session beginning July 26 and lasting to August 3. An extensive exhibition of geographical materials will be opened in connection with the congress. The invitation circular, lately issued, announces an imposing list of honorary officers, and a series of strong committees on the various subjects that are proposed for special discussion. The meeting promises to be an important one, and worthy to form the main object of a trip abroad. Full information concerning application for membership may be had of the Secretary, Royal Geographical Society, No. 1 Saville Row, London, W.

A loan collection of portraits of women is to open in Boston on March 11, by way of sequel to the very successful exhibitions in London and New York. Although Gainsborough, Reynolds, Sir Peter Lely, Romney, and other English artists will be represented, and examples of the best painters of the modern French school will be shown, the strength of the exhibition will be in the Copleys, Stuarts, Allstons, Smyberts, Trumbulls, and other painters of their time, besides all the well-known artists of the present day. The collection of miniatures of all schools will be especially interesting and valuable. Only one man is to be shown in the collection, viz, Copley, in a miniature by himself.

The Notman Photographic Co., Boston, sends us an admirable portrait of the late Frederick Douglass, taken at a recent date. One could not desire a better expression of the character of this remarkable man—his fine and venerable presence, his intellectual weight and shrewd humor, the kindly eye, the oratorical mouth. His sitting attitude is easy and dignified, and the whole aspect is that of the gentleman that he was. The print is somewhat larger than the ordinary cabinet size and more nearly square, and is valued not excessively at one dollar.

—If readers were in proportion to practical claim on their attention, the best-thumbed paper in the current number of *Harper's Magazine* would be the one on "The New York Common Schools." The reforms needed in the unwieldy system by which these schools are managed were pointed out as long ago as 1858 by a precursor of Mayor Gilroy's commission of 1893; as they were defeated then by the Board of Education, neglect of the first principles of public administration has since distinguished this department of public work. Where power is divided as it is here—between ward trustees, commissioners, inspectors, and State and city superintendents—responsibility naturally falls to the ground. The "accepted formula used in making scientific skill and knowledge available for the good of the community" is also here a dead letter. Laymen not only control expenditure and prescribe the scope and purpose of the work, but provide the classification of studies and scholars; and educational experts are, though "pedagogy has become a science and the managing of public schools an art," ruled out of the city's educational work. To bring to public hearing, now that reform is again in the air, the principles on which it must proceed, is to perform another of those thankless tasks by which public apathy is sometimes overcome, oftener not. A rider to this paper is contained in the Editor's Study, where some timely words on the habit of attention as a form of mental discipline are enforced by a description of the methods by which the habit has been cultivated with remarkable success in a girls' school. St. George Mivart takes in another paper the hopeful side of the vexed question, "Can acquired character be inherited?" and Mr. Howells contributes to the number an allegorical poem, "Society," in the form of two sonnets of antithetical social imagery.

—In the *Century* Joseph Pennell begins another set of impressions of places, seeking this time his fresh woods and pastures new "Beyond the Adriatic," in company with Harriet Waters Preston, who plays verbal cicerone to the reader in the transit between Fiume, Zara, Sebenico, and Trau, on their bright quays and in their market-places and churches, breaking off within sight of Spalato. Miss Preston makes notes of this and that, and jots down one thing after another in an easy, flowing hand, without special peculiarity of stroke or flourish; but Mr. Pennell's pictures of landscape and architecture combine delicacy and breadth, prettiness and vigor in a manner that stamps their authorship at a glance. "Jean Carriès: Sculptor and Potter," is written

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about by a panegyrist, Émile Hovelaque, in a strain plethoric in adjective and unshackled in simile. Nevertheless, Carriès, the inventor of a new earthenware, *grès*, whose exhibit in 1892 of works in bronze, wax, and pottery obtained for him, at the demand of his fellow-artists, the cross of the Legion of Honor, and who died untimely last July, at the age of thirty-eight, emerges from eulogy a singularly interesting figure, a workman of the mediæval type, and an artist (amply illustrated here by reproductions) of spontaneous creative imagination. Mr. Bunner undoubtedly weakens the force of his onslaught upon the novelist who writes with a moral purpose by his illustration of the plain man who, expecting to be interested during the dull hours of a journey "in the joys and sorrows, ups and downs of other human beings not unlike himself," finds himself able to understand "but little of the spiritual struggles of the personages of his book." There are still other human beings, however, who find spiritual struggles the most vital dramas of life; and the plain man, whose "moralities are of a simple, practical sort," obviously needs a guide at the book-stall. To demand that all novels shall be written down to his comprehension is to take a step in literary levelling as yet in advance of the time.

—The first paper in *Scribner's* is also the first of a series which will be continued through the year by the President of Brown University on the "History of the Last Quarter-Century in the United States." In this history the reader is to go, he is told, "upon a rapid excursion through vast tracts, with frequent use of the camera, and not upon a topographical survey." This forecast accurately defines the defects of the plan upon which the history, thus far, is written. Vague apprehension and an indefinite topography suffice, in general, to satisfy the lax interest of the ordinary mind. Especially do they so in regard to the principles that underlie our particular institutions and their practical application to concrete problems. The true function of the periodic literature that treats of these is to disseminate definite and precise ideas, even at the necessity of presupposing some patience on the part of the reader. Bird's-eye views and kodak methods are not likely to accomplish this aim. William F. Apthorp's article on "Orchestral Conducting and Conductors" is one from which the tyro in musical knowledge may derive a new point of view in regard to the office and evolution of the modern magnate of music, whose two-fold temptation is, it is shown, to exagge rate the effects of a score or to infuse it unduly with his individual musical temperament. That such temptation increases with the composer's increasing tendency to express himself less and less fully in his notation, and to leave more and more to the conductor's, or performer's, interpretation, can be easily understood. The eternal necessity for unity and symmetry of musical form is a capital theme on which to dwell when excitement and overstimulation are sought in music no less than in other fields, and when such catchwords as "barrier-spurning subjectivism" have found their way into musical discussion. "Bedding-Plants," by Samuel Parsons, jr., is an article full of healthful and pleasant suggestions, accompanied by attractive illustrations from photographs taken by the author's direction.

—The contents of the *Atlantic* are, in part, a pleasant bit of blank verse; the clever first half of a charmingly conceived story; and the prettiest possible sketch of a locality in southern Calabria. The verse, which is by Clinton Scollard, describes "Evening in Salisbury Close"—as it may be seen by some eyes at some times; the story, by Grace Howard Peirce, has for heroine a high-born maiden in the Reign of Terror; the sketch, by Elisabeth Pullen, bears the aptly adapted title, "Bova Unvisited"; and all combine, in the order named, graces of imagination with no less noticeable graces of expression. Prof. Lanciani makes interesting popular reading out of the specialists' explorations of the seats of the Roman oracles, and supports thereby his plea for Rome as "the best centre for the study of practical archæology." For students of social problems, or for the small minority that affects enlightenment on social subjects, H. Sidney Everett's article, "Immigration and Naturalization," covers important points, especially directing attention to the neglect of legislation concerning aliens as at the root of dishonest and wasteful mismanagement of municipal affairs. Equally serious in import is Prof. Shaler's discussion of the "Direction of Education." Although its immediate practical end is an increase of cooperation between masters of fitting-schools, public and private, and college authorities, with a view to the better development of the student's individual capacity, the argument by which this end is introduced is so broadly human, and involves so much social forethought, that any reader's thinking may well be stimulated by its perusal.

—M. Victor Turquan contributes to the *Réforme Sociale* an interesting study of the movements of population in France from 1846 to 1891. The number of inhabitants increased from 35,400,000 in 1846 to 38,067,000 in 1866. In consequence of the war with Prussia and the loss of the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine, it fell in 1872 to 36,103,000, rising gradually to 38,343,000 in 1891. From other sources we learn that in 1893 the number of births slightly exceeded the number of deaths, after having fallen below it for several years, so that the population is probably now somewhat greater than in 1891, especially as there has been a perceptible increase in the number of marriages. It is thought that this increase is due to the cessation of the influence of the mortality of the war of 1870 upon the marriage-rate, from which it may be inferred that, if peace is maintained, the number of marriages will continue to be in excess of the average of 280,000 per annum for the decade 1881–1890. It is to be considered, however, that the number of divorces shows a steady increase, and that the number of illegitimate offspring has attained the highest figure ever known, the percentage being 8.8. Moreover, the increase in population in 1893, so far as it is shown by the excess of births over deaths, is confined to the female sex, the number of males having actually diminished.

—M. Turquan's researches bring to view the operation of other causes which may in time affect all inferences drawn from movements of population in the past. Chief among these is the tendency to aggregation in cities, where the birth-rate is lower, at the expense of the country, where it is higher. The line between rural and urban communities in France is drawn with reference to the existence of a concentrated population of 2,000 souls; that is to say, even if a commune contains more than 2,000 inhabitants, it may not be classed as urban if this population is scattered, and not gathered about a centre. It appears that in 1846 the rural population numbered 26,753,000, while in 1891 it had decreased to 24,032,000. On the other hand, the urban population rose from 8,646,000 to 14,311,000. Representing the movements with a diagram, we have two steadily converging lines which will meet about 1925 or 1930, when the urban and rural population will be equal. By very elaborate investigations M. Turquan determines that between 1886 and 1891 the deaths among the urban population exceeded the births by 1,129, while among the rural population the births were in excess by 191,744. But the urban population increased in numbers during that time by 518,000, while the country population diminished by 585,000; indicating a net immigration to the cities from the country of some half a million souls. The minor discrepancies in the figures are explained as due to an excess of emigration of Frenchmen from France over the number of immigrants from foreign countries. In order to fix more precisely the directions of these movements, M. Turquan computes the numbers of communes of various sizes at the different periods under review. There has been a considerable increase, even of recent years, in the number of very small villages; *i. e.*, those of less than 300 souls. There has also been a notable increase in the number of communes having over 5,000 inhabitants. Communes having from 300 to 5,000 inhabitants have materially diminished in numbers; some of them having risen above the 5,000 limit, but more having fallen into the lower grades. The gain in population appears, therefore, to have been made almost exclusively by some 400 or 500 cities, at the expense of the small, but not the smallest, towns. It would be interesting to compare these results with the movement of population in the United States; but we fear that our census has been so mismanaged as to deprive inferences from its reports of all scientific value.

—An important function of the new parish and district councils in Great Britain is the increased opportunities they offer to women for public service. After twenty years, the number of Englishwomen who had secured places on the Poor Law Boards amounted to only about 200: at one bound this feminine contingent has nearly doubled. Indeed, nothing shows more clearly the conservative temper of the average British voter than the disparity in numbers between the women returned, in the recent local elections, as parish councillors and those returned as district councillors—the difference being as 1 to 10. The duties of a parish councillor have yet to be generally accepted as falling within the province of woman's experience, while it is quite otherwise as regards the duties of a poor-law guardian, which in future in rural districts will be discharged by the district councils. The proportion of women returned at the head of the poll is large: out of a group of 458 women candidates (outside of London), 377 were elected, "10 per cent. without contest, and 20 per cent. at the head of the poll," while in most cases women who had been serving as guardians, etc., were reëlected. At Girton Parish (Cambridgeshire) the junior bursar of Girton College, Miss Jackson, heads the list, a similar honor falling to the wife of the rector of Lanivet (Cornwall) in the election of district council. Old Boston (Lincolnshire) has returned Mrs. Bedford, treasurer of the Woman's Liberal Association, and at North Burley (York) Mrs. Priestly, the honorable secretary of the Low Moor Women's Liberal Association, distanced all competitors by 300 votes; at Morpeth (York) two ladies received 410 and 391 votes respec-

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tively, the best male running having only 175. Among other successful heads of polls may be mentioned Mrs. Leopold de Rothschild, Miss Twining, Lady Elcho, Lady Jackson, the Lady Mayoress of Leamington, and the Countess of Warwick.

—Dent's edition of Malory's 'Morte Darthur' (New York: Macmillan), the first volume of which we noticed at length some months ago, is now completed by the publication of volume ii. We have little to add to our former notice. Except for the Introduction by Prof. Rhys, on which we have already commented, the work contributes nothing to the textual or literary history of the 'Morte Darthur.' The footnotes are quite as sporadic in the second volume as in the first, and the "General Glossary" (of five pages!) usurps a name it does not own. As a drawing-room edition, however, the book is decidedly successful. The paper and the printing are a positive delight; the mere blackness of the ink is a source of physical and moral pleasure. As for Mr. Aubrey Beardsley's "designs," they are neither better nor worse than in the first volume. They have the same merits—merits of which the public has heard enough from the eccentric artist's admirers—and the same glaring defects. Among the latter we count as almost the least the queerness and ugliness of some of the pictures; it is their occasional flippancy and shallowness, and their more than occasional irrelevancy, that most offend one. As decoration they are often effective; as illustration they almost always fail. We doubt if Mr. Beardsley has, or cares to have, any understanding either of the Arthur legend itself or of Sir Thomas Malory's rendering of it. Nor can we believe that he really intended to *illustrate* the book. The title-page comes near the facts: "embellished with original designs." Some of the subjects selected for these embellishments show how little the artist concerned himself about the story in comparison with his interest in effects in black and white. "La Beale Isoud at Joyous Gard" is an example—a superb piece of decoration, which throws no light on the story, and in itself means no more, perhaps, than "the pride of life." Even more disappointing is the lack of imaginative veracity shown in "How Sir Bedivere Cast the Sword Excalibur into the Water"—a design which in other respects has much merit. As for the chapter-headings, we continue to like them in the main, but some of the gaunt figures are tiresome.

—'Florence,' by MM. Lafenestre and Richtenberger (Paris: Quantin) is a compilation based chiefly on the official catalogues of the various picture galleries at Florence. Occasionally a reference is made to the opinions of Crowe and Cavalcaselle and of Bode. A laudable feature is copious quotation from Vasari, and the history of the vicissitudes of the various pictures has also been attended to in a praiseworthy fashion. The hundred phototype illustrations have been chosen, on the whole, with great tact. A number of pictures in the Pitti and Uffizi, as, for instance, the "Pico da Mirandola," the tiny "Madonna with Music-making Angels," "The Religious Allegory," and the "Portrait of Luigi Cornaro," are still entered by the authors as by an unknown Tuscan, by Titian, by Basaiti, and by Titian respectively, although in the galleries themselves the labels have already been changed, in obedience to modern criticism, to Botticelli, Correggio, Bellini, and Tintoretto respectively. The necessary information given about the painters betrays on the part of the compilers lack of acquaintance with recent research. The date of Gentile da Fabriano's death, for instance, is given as "about 1450," although documents establish that he was dead in 1430; Lotto's birthplace is given as Treviso, although it has been proved again and again that this artist was born in Venice. But, whatever its faults, the book serves the purpose at least of an inexpensive souvenir of the pictures at Florence.

THE APPROPRIATION OF LAND.

Land Systems of Australia. By William Epps. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. 1894.

THE establishment of property in land has always been one of the most troublesome problems of civilization, and a history of the various theories and expedients adopted in securing peaceable enjoyment to the occupants of definite portions of the surface of the earth would be a library in itself. From the point of view of abstract justice, as it appears to Henry George and as it appeared to Herbert Spencer before he discovered what was involved in the opinion, every human being is entitled to an aliquot part of the inhabitable surface of this planet. The first stumbling-block encountered by this theory is the existence of independent sovereign governments. Whatever titles these governments recognize among their own subjects, they do not admit that the soil within their jurisdictions can be possessed by aliens. Still more serious is the difficulty arising from the expenditure of labor and capital upon land. Most men recalcitrate at a theory of justice which does not recognize claims for "unexhausted improvements"; but if the new-born babe is required to purchase his aliquot portion of land at the cost of the improvements that have been made upon it, his right becomes of a very shadowy character. And finally the institution of the family complicates the case hopelessly; for it will never be generally admitted that children have not a peculiar claim to the possessions, landed or other, of their parents.

Most societies, finding it impossible to comply with the requirements of natural justice, have cut the Gordian knot by getting the land as speedily as possible into the hands of private owners. Once there, the operation of the laws of alienation and devise brings about a constant readjustment, which, however far from ideal justice, makes the system at least tolerable. We are approaching this condition in the United States, since there is now little really desirable agricultural land open for settlement under the homestead acts, although there is an immense area of arid land which can be used only for grazing, but which the Government has hitherto refused to make available for that purpose. Sooner or later, however, the Government will be compelled to legislate concerning this land, and when that time shall arrive, the experience of the English colonies in Australia will be found to afford many useful precedents and many grave warnings.

Mr. Epps's book is therefore of value to American readers, and although the multitude of details necessarily makes it painful reading, many of its lessons and conclusions are too important to be uninteresting. He takes up the legislation affecting land tenure that has prevailed in New South Wales, Tasmania, Victoria, Queensland, Western Australia, South Australia, and New Zealand; a method necessary to completeness, but which involves much repetition. It will suffice for our purpose to glance briefly at the experiments which have been made by New South Wales and New Zealand, and to consider the difficulties with which they are at present confronted.

New South Wales was first settled by convicts transported from England, and for many years leases were made by the Government only on condition that the lessee employed convicts in proportion to his holding, while all settlement beyond certain narrow limits was prohibited. The introduction of grants in fee at fixed prices, and afterwards at auction, caused a rapid alienation of land, and the abolition of the system of transportation in 1840 made the colony more attractive to free immigrants. The appropriation of land through sales at auction was conducted in the first place according to the "Wakefield system," the theory of which was that only small contiguous areas should be disposed of, at a high price, the proceeds to be applied to bringing in agricultural laborers. But the theory collapsed before the rush of the "squatters." In spite of the prohibition of the Government, settlers pressed on beyond the prescribed limits, and formed a community outside of all laws. Many of these squatters were convicts, and, whoever they were, the Government was impotent to prevent their crossing an imaginary line 500 miles in length, or to bring them back after they had crossed it. There was nothing to do but to make the best of the situation, and the squatters obtained legal recognition of their right to the use of grazing-lands upon payment of a small license fee. Attempts were made from time to time to compel the squatters to purchase a part of the lands which they occupied, while the squatters tried to get their tenancies converted practically into estates in fee. In 1847 a system of leasing was adopted which resulted in the most frightful speculation and corruption, many of the squatters finding that the lands occupied by them had been leased by Government officers; and as these leases carried with them a right of purchase, great tracts of land available for settlement passed into the hands of absentee landlords.

These leases, however, proved to be feeble muniments of title. Under the influence of the popular outcry against land monopoly, acts were passed in 1861 providing for the "selection" of lands as homesteads, and for the leasing of pastoral lands for short terms. These acts were, according to Mr. Epps, "the cause of more heart-burning, public immorality, and private chicanery and class antagonism than any measures ever passed in Australasia." Upon the one hand, these laws enabled the "selectors" to blackmail the squatters by selecting such portions of their "runs," especially those bordering upon the streams, as were indispensable to the use of the remainder, and by impounding their cattle. Upon the other hand, the squatters were enabled to buy up the selected tracts or to select them for themselves through "dummies." Under the law as amended in 1875, a family of five persons above the age of sixteen years could take up 12,000 acres. The fundamental vice of the law, as declared in the report of the land commission of 1883, was that "it offered for sale to one class of occupants the same land which was simultaneously assigned under lease to another class."

The system has been improved during the last decade, but it still fails to give satisfaction. Between 1861 and 1891 the urban population increased from 160,000 to 730,000; but

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the rural population increased only from 190,000 to 388,000. Between 1879 and 1891 the area of estates under 200 acres scarcely increased at all, while the area of those of 1,000 acres and upwards more than doubled. The average size of estates has increased from 315 acres in 1876 to 816 acres in 1892. Of the total area occupied as freehold, only 2 per cent. is under cultivation—less than half of 1 per cent. of the total area of the colony, and little more than one acre per head of the population. The value of agricultural produce is declining, and the quantity is altogether insufficient for home consumption. It would seem from these figures that the pastoral industry is ordained by nature for this colony, while the efforts of legislators have been directed towards discouraging it. Even this industry is now threatened, since the introduction of rabbits a few years ago has been followed by their prodigious multiplication, to the ruin of pas turage; the graziers being unwilling to incur the expense of protecting leaseholds whence they may be presently evicted without compensation for their improvements.

We have left ourselves little space to describe the history of land tenure in New Zealand, although, when we consider that the early settlers were established under the auspices of the Church of England and the Free Church of Scotland, it is evident that an interesting comparison might be made with the convict settlements of Australia. To some extent we find a repetition of the experiments and blunders of New South Wales, but we can comment only upon some recent legislation. Prior to 1892, lands were leased, in perpetuity, but subject to periodical reappraisement of rent, with the idea of securing to the state the "unearned increment." Since that date, however, leases are made for 999 years at 4 per cent. of the value at the time of selection, the "single-tax" theory having as to this feature collapsed. But the most important innovation is that which forbids any man holding 2,000 acres of land to acquire any more of the public domain. Furthermore, there is a special tax upon non resident landowners, and a graduated land-tax intended to disintegrate large estates, in addition to the regular tax upon land. This graduated tax is imposed upon land valued at over £5,000, after deducting the value of improvements, but not mortgages, rising from one-eighth of a penny in the pound to fifteen times that rate upon valuations over £210,000. When we consider that of the total freehold area of 12,410,000 acres, not less than 7,026,000 are owned by 584 persons, that of the remainder 1,675 persons hold 2,144,000 acres, while the 3,240,000 acres left are divided among 41,518 owners, it is not surprising that a policy hostile to such aggregations of property should find favor. The results of this policy are awaited with eagerness by the other Australasian colonies, nor will they be without interest for the older nations of the earth.

Much credit is due to Mr. Epps for his indefatigable labor in collecting and arranging a mass of inaccessible materials in such a manner as to enable us to understand this interesting phase of the development of the institution of property. It is to be hoped that his work may attract the attention of our legislators, who have yet to deal with the problem of disposing of the arid grazing-lands of the United States, which constitute one-third of its area.

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

Early London Theatres (In the Fields). By T. Fairman Ordish, F.S.A. [The Camden Library.] London: Elliot Stock; New York: Macmillan.

Technique of the Drama; An Exposition of Dramatic Composition and Art. By Gustav Freytag. Translated by Elias J. MacEwan, M.A. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.

Génie et Métier. Par Hippolyte Parigot. Paris: Colin; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.

Les 36 Situations Dramatiques. Par Georges Polti. Paris: Le Mercure de France; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.

Le Théâtre à Coté. Par Adolphe Aderer. Paris: Quantin; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.

AMONG the books which every earnest student of the drama needs is a treatise describing the English theatre in the time of Elizabeth and James, in which the construction of the playhouses, the organization of the companies, the hours of performances, the arrangement of the stage, and the disposition of the spectators should all be set down in order clearly and simply, with brief references to the authorities relied on for every important assertion. Such a treatise would help us to understand the physical conditions under which the great English dramatists worked, just as Mr. Haigh's invaluable volume on 'The Attic Theatre' enables us to explain for ourselves not a few of the peculiarities of the Greek drama, and just as the late Eugène Despois's most useful little book on 'Le Théâtre-Français sous Louis XIV.' makes clear to us the circumstances under which the plays of Corneille, of Molière, and of Racine were first produced before the public. A like volume devoted to the Spanish stage in the days of Lope de Vega and of Calderon is also much needed. But to us, speakers of English, using the language of Shakspere as our mother-tongue, a clear explanation of the Shaksperian theatre is a crying need. This book Mr. Ordish has not given or attempted to give us; but he has greatly facilitated the labor of the student who shall undertake the task. Of late years an immense collection of separate items of information about the players and playhouses of England under Elizabeth has been amassed by arduous research under the lead chiefly of that faithful scholar, Halliwell-Phillipps. This information Mr. Ordish has utilized in an attempt to tell the history of the leading theatres outside the city gates—the Theatre and the Curtain being the chief of these; and he intends to prepare a second volume on the theatres within the limits of the City of London. Perhaps the prime merit of the present work is that it brushes aside boldly the reckless misstatements of John Payne Collier, and leads us back again to the actual records which Collier was willing to treat as cavalierly as possible.

The influence of the physical conditions of the theatre of a country upon the form of its drama cannot but be enormous; and yet very few critics have given due weight to it. That the Greek drama differs so widely from the Spanish, and that the English drama of Elizabeth contrasts itself so sharply with the French drama of Louis XIV., is due in part, no doubt, and perhaps chiefly, to the differences of race and of time; but it is due also in great measure to differences in the physical conditions of the theatres for which Sophocles and Calderon, Shakspere and Corneille wrote their plays. It is quite impossible that the Greek and the Spaniard, the Englishman and the Frenchman, should use the same technic, however much they might be in agreement as to the fundamental principles of dramatic construction. That they are in substantial agreement in the use of certain principles there is no doubt; and it is to a discussion of these generally accepted principles that Freytag devoted his 'Technik des Dramas.' Freytag had the advantage of being himself a working playwright, considering the stage from the inner side of the footlights, and having, therefore, a keener sympathy with dramaturgic difficulties than is possible to a merely academic critic. He drew his examples chiefly from the Greek drama, from Shakspere, and from Lessing, Goethe, and Schiller, ignoring the drama of Spain and France, for the most part. From a sentence in the introduction it may be inferred that Freytag is not acquainted with the remarkable verses of Lope on the 'Arte nueva de hacer comedias.' Mr. MacEwan's translation is fluent in the main, although it seems forced now and then; and he has apparently not troubled himself always to verify the original English which Freytag cites in German; thus, we find that the *Friar Lawrence* of "Romeo and Juliet" appears (on p. 33) as *Lorenzo*.

Closely akin, in some respects, to Freytag's book is M. Parigot's collection of essays, in which the intent is to show how much skill and craftsmanship underlies genius. Every man must serve his apprenticeship if he wishes to be a master of the craft. The genius can shorten the years of service and can learn the trade more swiftly than his less-gifted rivals, but sooner or later the trade has to be learnt, for all that; and the great dramatists of all times and peoples have all of them been cunning artificers. Merely as playwrights, seeking how best to make a play please, amuse, interest, entertain an audience, Sophocles and Shakspere, Molière and Ibsen have had few rivals. Corneille is the master of the technic of the drama whose processes M. Parigot has chosen to study and to expound to us; and his analysis is most illuminative, and makes clear phases of Corneille's art not hitherto plain to us. Akin to this study is an extremely interesting discussion of the relation of the vaudeville, the comedy of ingenious intrigue, with the larger comedy of manners, in which M. Parigot shows that, even in the best comedy of manners, construction plays a very important part. Another instructive paper gives us many new facts about the original manuscripts of the younger Dumas's plays, showing how the playmaker and the phrasemaker, both of which are in M. Dumas, contended for the mastery, and how the playmaker finally conquered the phrasemaker.

In one of his conversations with Eckermann, Goethe said that Gozzi, the Venetian dramatist, had declared that there were only thirty-six possible dramatic situations, and that Schiller had tried hard to find more, but he could not make out even as many as Gozzi. This chance saying of Goethe's is the text of M. Polti's volume. M. Polti has analyzed some thousand plays, and he has made a list of what seem to him to be *the* thirty-six situations he found therein; and under one or another of these main situations, with their several varieties, he has been able to classify all the situations in all these plays. A limitation of the number to thirty-six is arbitrary, of course, and another investigator might easily have arranged the results of his research under twenty heads or under fifty. Perhaps, also, Mr. William Archer is right in thinking that M. Polti has erred in attempting a classification by the situation, which is

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the mere outward expression of an emotion, instead of a classification by the emotions themselves. None the less is M. Polti's labor not without interest. He has enabled us to see that certain situations were often used by the Greek dramatists, and are now almost wholly neglected by modern playwrights. He shows us that certain other situations seemingly fertile in dramatic effect and in histrionic possibilities have been most insufficiently attempted at any time. He gives us added evidence, were any really needed, to disprove Mr. Swinburne's assertion that Victor Hugo is a great dramatist of the race and lineage of Shakspere. That is to say, under his Situation XIX, "*To kill one of his kin unknown*" (to be found in the "Ion" of Euripides, the "Merope" of Alfieri, the "Mahomet" of Voltaire), he finds it easy to classify all of the ten plays of Hugo, and he discovers variants of this situation actually five times repeated in the single play of "Lucrèce Borgia." Yet such a situation must be very rare indeed in real life; and it does not occur once in all the thirty-nine plays of Shakspere, who preferred to deal with stronger subjects than a situation as accidental as this.

While M. Francisque Sarcey is the regular dramatic critic of the *Temps*, that best and most dignified of Parisian journals, contributing a long and elaborate review of the week to the paper which bears the date of Monday morning, although it appears on Sunday afternoon, the daily theatrical notes, items of gossip, bits of news, "first-night" impressions, are the work of M. Adolphe Aderer, who also from time to time contributes longer articles on subjects connected with the stage. For the *Temps* he recently prepared a series of papers describing the many organizations now existing in Paris for the purpose of giving occasional performances of new plays; and these papers appear now in a volume with a prefatory note by M. Sarcey. It needed a volume like this on 'Le Théâtre à Coté' to enable a foreigner to understand the prodigious theatrical activity of France. In addition to the regular theatres relying almost wholly on the contemporary French dramatists, and very rarely indeed producing any adaptation of any foreign play, there are also at least a dozen really important societies—of which the "Théâtre Libre" is the best known, and the "Cercle Funambulesque" (for reviving the delicate art of French pantomime) is the most original—there are at least a dozen societies giving perhaps half-a-dozen performances each during the winter, at each of which performances only new plays are acted. To any one interested in the contemporary drama M. Aderer's little book is most instructive. It is a great pity that the projectors of the unfortunate "Theatre of Arts and Letters" here in New York had not possessed the taste and the tact which more than one of the directors of these Parisian analogues has given proof of.

A History of Egypt: From the earliest times to the Sixteenth Dynasty. By W. M. Flinders Petrie, D. C. L., Edwards Professor of Egyptology in University College, London. With numerous illustrations. London: Methuen & Co. 1894.

To most readers the fact would be of small significance that unmummied bodies have been found in Egypt, buried in a crouching or bent position with their faces toward the east. Similarly, it would awaken no interest to be told that a scarab of an uncertain king was ornamented by a "discontinuous scroll" and by "vertical lines down each side of the name," and also that the circle which is used in the writing of the same king's name contained two transverse marks. Even to the average person interested in Egyptian antiquities, the exact location of a place called *Hat-Nub* would appear to be of decidedly minor importance. Yet these are three points brought out by Prof. Petrie because they have very important bearings upon some of the hardest problems that face the student of Egyptian origins, history, and chronology.

A difference in burial customs points to a difference of religious belief and practice, and hints at a difference of race and previous ancestral home. Relations are found to exist between the Egyptians and the inhabitants of Punt, a land on either side of the Red Sea at its southern end—the Somali coast and southern Arabia. Further investigations seem to indicate that these peoples originated in the Persian Gulf region, and that they spread thence, passing up the Red Sea, a portion of them branching off to Egypt by way of Kosseir and Koptos, settling first at Thinis and thence descending to Memphis, and the rest proceeding northward to Phœnicia and thence westward along the shores of the Mediterranean to northern Africa and even to Spain.

One of the dark periods of Egyptian annals is that between the seventh and the tenth dynasties. Prof. Petrie finds a cause for a part of the uncertainty in the fact that the royal power fell into gradual decay during the seventh and eighth dynasties, so that, at the close of the eighth dynasty and during the ninth and tenth, the land was governed by territorial princes and local rulers, over whom finally a foreign king gained supremacy. The name of this king has generally been read as Ianra or Iannias, and he has been identified with one of the Hyksos rulers mentioned by Josephus. The circle with the two transverse lines mentioned above differs from a circle with a central dot, and this difference makes a change from the name Ianra to the name Khyan or Khian, a formation foreign to Egyptian usage. The peculiar method of ornamentation employed upon a scarab bearing the name of this sovereign, upon which stress is laid, fixes his reign previous to the period of the eleventh and twelfth dynasties, because only then in the whole extent of Egyptian history was this style of ornamentation in vogue. We thus get a glimpse of a period of foreign invasion which seems to account for the retreat of the princes of the tenth dynasty toward the south. This period was like that of the Hyksos invasion, but was long anterior to it.

The bearing of the location of *Hat-Nub* upon questions of chronology is too complicated for treatment here; suffice it to say that it, in connection with other data, serves as a basis for the calculation of the approximate time required to transport stones on a falling Nile from the quarry to the capital, and hence the approximate day of the month when such an operation was undertaken in the reign of Merenra of the sixth dynasty. This enables one to fix the time when a given date fell in a certain part of the Egyptian changeable year, and, by means of reference to its location in a given Sothic period, to translate it into terms of years composed of three hundred and sixty-five and a quarter days. The degree of uncertainty that has reigned in the dates of events in what is called the Old Kingdom has been simply startling, and Erman only stated the fact when he said that a difference of a thousand years might exist between the date assigned to a given event and the time when it actually occurred. But the combination of the astronomical with the regnal method of computation gives us an approximation which is believed by Prof. Petrie to be within a century at the outside. Combined with the system of calculation by "dead reckoning" it is found that a date for Menes, the first king, may be provisionally assigned at about 4800 B. C. (4777). This date differs from that of Mariette (5004) by only about 200 years, while it is nearly 1,000 years below that of Champollion (5867), 800 below that of Wiedemann (5650), 400 above that of Brugsch (4400), and about 900 above those of Lepsius (3892) and Lieblein (3893). The date of Wilkinson (2320) is most "orthodox," but it is more than doubled by Petrie. It is to be noted that the approximate nature of this assignment is insisted upon with reiteration by Petrie; but that it indicates a long step in advance is undoubted.

The volume under consideration is the first of six, which are to cover the Dynastic, the Ptolemaic, the Roman, and the Arabic periods of Egyptian history, and in the last two Prof. Petrie is to have the coöperation of J. G. Milne and Stanley Lane-Poole, respectively. When completed, the series will present the best compendium of Egyptian history for the use of the student in English, if not in any language. That of Brugsch is brilliant, but it is padded with much that is conjectural or rhetorical. That of Wiedemann is simply invaluable, and will remain so on account of its multitudinous details. The present volume is somewhat on the plan of Wiedemann, but is more condensed in parts and in others supplemented by the results of years of research expended by Petrie himself in the land of the Nile. He has also improved upon his predecessor by giving a large number of illustrations, and also the hieroglyphic forms of the names of many of the Pharaohs. Mariette's 'Aperçu' (translated by Brodrick) is merely a brief outline, which is in part superseded already, and this remark denotes the fault to be found with most histories of the Pharaohs that are ten years old and upwards. The best previous history is that of Eduard Meyer, and it is not superseded entirely by that of Petrie.

There are those who will think that Prof. Petrie has not been wise in his treatment of proper names. It may be slightly more correct to write *Tahutmes* than *Thothmes*, but the gain is not very marked, and the second form has the right to the ground by long occupation. But in writing the first form the author departs from the general usage of the book, and is inconsistent either way. But this, though not at all an isolated case, is only as a "grain of sand in the marble of the Parthenon." He has arranged his material in a perspicuous way, has illustrated his work quite profusely, and has made the ground of chronology more firm. Succeeding volumes will be looked for with interest by students of Egyptian history, because they come from masters. For popular reading, in the ordinary sense, the present volume is scarcely adapted because of its detail, but the sections which summarize whole dynasties or periods are brief, clear, and good, so that the outline of the history is easily available to one who wishes to skip the facts of single reigns.

General Hancock. By General Francis A. Walker. [Great Commanders.] D. Appleton & Co. 12mo, pp. 332.

GEN. WALKER frankly states that the inclusion of Gen. Hancock's name in a list of "Great

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Commanders" must be regarded as an enlargement of the natural meaning of the title, since his service was always subordinate, and he was never subjected to the supreme responsibilities of the leader of an independent army in the field. Still, all who admire a splendid soldier will be glad to have any phrase made elastic enough to include a career which was a model for nearly everything that a brave and patriotic officer would desire to be and to do. In every part of his war service he bore himself so that he was naturally looked to as one fit for the next step in promotion; and we are not called upon to decide whether he would have been equally brilliant if the last test had been applied, and he had been appointed to lead a great army.

Born of intelligent parents in Pennsylvania in 1824, he entered the Military Academy at sixteen and graduated in 1844, just before reaching his majority. Of powerful physique and fine presence, his bent was towards the active and athletic side of a soldier's life. In intellectual work he does not seem to have advanced beyond the lower third of a class no way greatly distinguished. This forces on our attention the fact that the business of the soldier is fighting, and that the qualities that brought Hancock a great harvest of glory in the fierce struggle at the Spottsylvania salient were not necessarily those which secure a high academic standing. There must, of course, be the ordinary education which fits a man for the not inconsiderable business of a corps command; but the essentials, after all, were unflinching courage, perfect presence of mind in the midst of the most startling dangers, the tenacity of will which does not accept defeat, the power to infuse his own heroism into others, and the common sense which fully comprehends the problems of a field of conflict not too large to be within the scope of actual vision. Accomplishments of every sort may adorn the soldier, but the characteristics which make success sure in the larger positions that are still subordinate, are those which are thus indicated; and all these Hancock had in a remarkable degree.

He had another trait which was by no means so common as one could wish. He was cheerfully and heartily obedient to those placed over him in command. His was no perfunctory obedience which was willing to do only the thing commanded. He took in the full spirit of his orders, and was willing to go any length in making their execution a success, without sticking in the letter. This gave him the solid place in the confidence and esteem of Grant and Meade which was repeatedly and strongly attested by them.

The warm affection which Gen. Walker feels for his former commander is the natural outgrowth of his war-time relations to such a man. A young staff-officer in the military family of such a soldier would naturally worship the man whom he followed; and when the kindness of heart of the chief and his generous qualities added a sincere personal affection to admiration and loyal attachment, the junior's sentiments would become almost filial. Whatever would seem excessive in the praise which is lavished, becomes thus additional evidence of the noble qualities which could rouse such devotion in the heart of one whose keen and critical intellect has been distinguished in multifarious fields of investigation and administration.

Perhaps a word ought to be said, by way of helping to hold level the scales of historical justice, in relation to Meade's order sending Hancock on the 1st of July to the field of Gettysburg to assume command over Howard, the senior in rank. We are told that in three or four less prominent cases Meade did the same thing. Whether one or several, such orders were illegal in fact, and in an instance arising later, when Sherman issued a similar order with an arrangement by which it was amicably submitted to the War Department, Gen. Halleck announced the decision which explicitly declared that in such a case the senior among the corps or other commanders has the legal right to command, unless the President shall by special action order otherwise. By no implication could the power be exercised by a general in the field. The military hierarchy is fixed by the articles of war, which are part of the United States statutes. The special assignment permitted to the President not only must theoretically be exercised by himself, but was in fact uniformly so done, in a long series of orders of similar tenor to that by which Gen. Hancock received his assignment as corps commander, which gave him precedence over other major-generals not so assigned. They were issued from the War Department "by direction of the President," published "by order of the Secretary of War," and signed by the Adjutant-General of the army.

On the question of fact, whether Hancock did actually exercise any authority over Howard, the statements of the two officers are conflicting, and the disinterested testimony seems to reduce it to a question of form more than of substance. Gen. Walker was absent by reason of wounds received before that time, and therefore does not speak as a witness.

The author is also very frank in notifying his readers that, having published a history of the Second Corps, it has been almost a necessity that he should make free use of this material, adding, however, whatever might be needful to make a full biographical sketch of the striking figure which has the chief place in both books. The story of Hancock's administrative service in New Orleans, his relations to Andrew Johnson's Administration, and his own candidacy for the Presidency, is all told with admirable candor, and the narrative retains its attractiveness to the end. The habit of dealing with census statistics, and of seeking close logical form for the expression of reasoning in economics, has not deprived the author of the power of making a vivid and most effective narrative, full of color and of deep feeling.

My Study Fire. By Hamilton Wright Mabie. Dodd, Mead & Co.

THE faults of manner of this second series of Mr. Mabie's abbreviated essays are largely due to the conditions of their production. Their quality has obviously been adapted to the quality of the audience to which they are addressed, and they suffer in consequence, as the actor suffers who is compelled to play long and constantly to undiscriminating houses. If the groundlings could have been left out of account, and Mr. Mabie had been always stimulated by the consciousness of ears quick to sift the easily fetched paragraph from the genuinely and individually developed thought, the most glaring defects would, there is reason to believe, have been absent from his work. He would presumably have been more chary of generalizations—about the "Attic Greeks," for instance; he would probably never have written such sentences as that about "the tumultuous music of a virile song," and others of its kind; and he would, it is likely, have been more on his guard against quoting authors and others in the heterogeneous fashion of the country people who open a Bible at random to find a text suited to any emergency. More careful trains of reflection—if not a sense of humor—would, there is little doubt, have prevented the putting together of Theocritus and Froebel as twin authorities, or would have made impossible a ridiculous medley like that produced by citing, within the space of ten lines, "Phidias or Pericles or Plato," George MacDonald, Socrates, and Hamerton.

To what the essays teach, on the other hand, no exception need be taken. A writer performs a valuable service when he persistently and plainly tells a restless and excitable generation of readers that intervals of withdrawal from external rush and hurry are essential to their soul's salvation; that without periods of solitude and silence there can be no true mental culture; that "there is something in us which even our ideals must respect, and that something is our own individuality." He is as timely as he is frank when he insists that "to rush wildly with the maddened throng after Browning for one short winter, to be diverted the next season by Ibsen, is to carefully destroy all hope of coming into real contact with either of these writers"; and he shows himself in advance of most of his contemporaries when he tells them that "the eternal charm of beauty lies in its complete severance from all trace of work." Moreover, he becomes not only a profitable, but an uncommon, companion to most readers when his pages suggest, if they do not explicitly say, that it ought to be possible to enjoy the society and even appreciate the wit or wisdom of individuals, without first discovering them to be labelled in large letters as having appeared in print, been prominent in movements, or exhausted a specialty.

Two of the most thoroughly attractive essays in the volume are the first, "The Book and the Reader," in which Mr. Mabie reveals, in a highly agreeable style, the variety and resources of his own mind; and a later one, "A Poet of Admiration," in which a brief sketch is given of the life and verse of Arthur Hugh Clough. Here, instead of the circuitous round, through Mlle. Scudéry, Howell, and Thackeray, which introduces, for instance, "The Lowell Letters," we have the subject presented so directly, with so much vividness and relevancy, that it is the more to be regretted that it is the only paper in the collection which Mr. Mabie has chosen to treat in just this way.

Across Asia on a Bicycle. By Allen and Sachtleben. The Century Co.

THE mere title of this little work shows that we have to deal with a remarkable journey. It is certainly extraordinary that two young Americans should have undertaken, as soon as they had graduated from a university in Missouri, to complete their education by a trip around the world on their bicycles. Of this trip by far the most difficult and interesting part was their ride across Asia, and they have done wisely in confining their narration to that portion of their experiences, though the story is well enough told to have made us glad of a bulkier volume. Starting from Constantinople, they rode across Asia Minor, Persia, Transcaspia, entered China at Kuldja, then crossed the Gobi Desert and the whole empire to Pekin and Tientsin, where the natural conclusion to their adventures was an interview with Li Hung Chang. They overcame mountains and deserts, suffered many hardships as well as occasional breakdowns, and, though they did much walking, seldom availed them-

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selves of other means of conveyance than their bicycles. The chief incident not in direct pursuance of their journey was an ascent of Mt. Ararat, which is well described. The little volume in which they relate their experiences is an example of simple, unassuming narrative, while the few general reflections thrown in here and there are unusually sensible. What the travellers underwent is told in such a quiet, matter-of-fact way that one is in danger of forgetting the extreme difficulty of their achievement. Next to the qualities of courage, endurance, and good temper that they must have been continually called upon to show, their success was chiefly due to the boldness and novelty of their enterprise, which excited the curiosity and sympathy of both Europeans and Asiatics, even in China, where—

"Had we been travelling in the ordinary way, not only these favors might not have been shown us, but our project entirely defeated by local obstructions, as was the case with many who attempted the same journey by caravan. To the good will of the mandarins, as well as the people, an indispensable concomitant of a journey through China, our bicycles were after all our best passports. They everywhere overcame the antipathy for the foreigner, and made us cordially welcome."

There are not many people who could and would make such a trip, nor very many who would describe it so modestly if they had done so. The illustrations selected from our wheelmen's photographs are profuse and interesting.

Henry of Navarre and the Religious Wars. By Edward T. Blair. Lippincott. 1895.

THIS very beautiful volume is refreshingly free from all pretence of scholarly merit. It is a simple narration of the fortunes of the very interesting personage who stands at the centre of all the schemes of French parties during the later period of the religious wars. It frankly places the personal element in the foreground, and makes love affairs, court intrigue, and jealousy of quite equal importance with the deeper movement of politics. The same lack of scientific interest is seen even in the treatment of the numerous illustrations with which the book is embellished. Here was a capital opportunity for reproducing contemporary work after the fashion of the Germans, but, instead of this, we have chiefly photographic representations of modern paintings of the "ideal" sort. To crown this childishness, not one of these paintings is furnished with so much as the name of the artist.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Satchel Guide for the Vacation Tourist in Europe. 1895. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Baldwin, Prof. J. M. Mental Development in the Child and the Race. Macmillan. $2.60.
Beach, C. F., Jr. Commentaries on the Law of Insurance. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $12.
Bolton, Mrs. Sarah K. The Inevitable, and Other Poems. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Collins, J. C. Essays and Studies. Macmillan. $3.
Cowell, E. B. The Jātaka; or, Stories of the Buddha's Former Births. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Dowden, Prof. Edward. Poems by Robert Southey. [Golden Treasury Series.] Macmillan. $1.
Esclangon, A. The French Verb Newly Treated. Macmillan. $1.25.
Fetter, Norman. Handbook of Equity Jurisprudence. St. Paul: West Publishing Co.
Glazebrook, R. T. Mechanics: An Elementary Text-Book. Cambridge: University Press: New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Halle, Ernst von. Trusts in the United States. Macmillan. $1.25.
Harris, W. T. How to Teach Natural Science in Public Schools. 2d ed. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 50 cents.
Hughes, Rev. H. P. Essential Christianity: A Series of Explanatory Sermons. F. H. Revell Co. $1.25.
Jusserand, J. J. A Literary History of the English People. From the Origins to the Renaissance. Putnams. $3.50.
Kitson, Arthur. A Scientific Solution of the Money Question. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. $1.25.
Kienze, Camillo von. Deutsche Gedichte. Henry Holt & Co. 90 cents.
Lansdell, Rev. Henry. Chinese Central Asia: A Ride to Little Tibet. 2 vols. Scribners. $5.
Macaulay and Carlyle on Samuel Johnson. Henry Holt & Co. 40 cents.
Malthus, T. R. Parallel Chapters from the First and Second Editions of an Essay on the Principle of Population. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Massey, Susanna. God's Parable, and Other Poems. Putnams. $1.
Mason, James. The Art of Chess. London: Horace Cox.
McDonald, Donald. Sweet-Scented Flowers and Fragrant Leaves. Scribners. $1.50.
Meinhold, Wilhelm. The Amber Witch. London: David Nutt; New York: Scribners. $2.50.
Pendleton, Louis. The Sons of Ham: A Tale of the New South. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Phillpotts, Eden. Some Every-day Folks. Harpers. 60 cents.
Raymond, Walter. Tryphena in Love. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Raymond, Prof. G. L. Pictures in Verse. Putnams. 75 cents.
Reinach, Théodore. Textes d'Auteurs Grecs et Romains relatifs au Judaisme. Réunis, traduits et annotés. Paris; Leroux.
Roberts, Morley. The Degradation of Geoffrey Alwith. Chicago: C. H. Sergel Co. 50 cents.
Saint-Pierre, Bernardin de. Paul and Virginia. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Sargent, Lieut. H. H. Napoleon Bonaparte's First Campaign. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Satterlee, Rev. H. Y. A Creedless Gospel and the Gospel Creed. Scribners. $2.
Schreiber, Th. Atlas of Classical Antiquities. Macmillan. $6.50.
Scollard, Prof. Clinton. Ford's The Broken Heart. Henry Holt & Co. 40 cents.
Seidel, Heinrich. Leberecht Hühnchen und Andere Sonderlinge. Boston: Schoenhof.
Shiel, M. P. Prince Zaleski. London: John Lane; Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Skeat, Rev. W. W. The Student's Chaucer: A Complete Edition of his Works. Macmillan. $1.75.
Sorauer, Paul. A Popular Treatise on the Physiology of Plants. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.
State Education for the People. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. $1.25.
Wallace, A. Popular Sayings Dissected. F. A. Stokes Co. 75 cents.
Warden, Florence. Kitty's Engagement. Appletons.
Wildenbruch, Ernst von. Harold: Trauerspiel in Fünf Akten. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 40 cents.
Young, Mrs. Virginia D. "Beholding as in a Glass." Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. $1.25.
Zévort, G. La Peinture sur Etoffes. Paris: Librairie de l'*Art*.

BY THE AUTHOR OF
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A MAN OF MARK.

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